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ABSTRACT

This report presents a review of the condition of Asian American education in Illinois and educational and occupational problems of Asian Americans nationwide. The data on Illinois Asian Americans was collected from the public school fall enrollment and housing report, end of year report, public school bilingual census, and selected 1980 census data for school districts with high Asian/Pacific Islander student enrollment. In addition, the report draws on testimonies presented at a community forum on Educational Issues concerning Asian Americans jointly sponsored by the Illinois State Board of Education and the Illinois Asian American Advisory Council to the Governor held on July 2, 1985, at Truman College in Chicago. Evidence demonstrates that in comparison with whites, Asian Americans are usually disadvantaged; and that there is great diversity in educational and occupational achievement within the Asian American community, usually based on economic status and length of time in the United States. An analysis of findings from the data sets is reported against the backdrop of testimonies from concerned parents, teachers, and community leaders. Findings from S.A.T. results and other special sample surveys are included. Recommendations are made on how to improve the usefulness and quality of data routinely collected by the Board of Education in order to give Asian Americans equal access to the educational and employment opportunities afforded other Illinois residents. Extensive statistical tables and charts as well as references are provided. The appendix consists of a transcript of the July 1985 Chicago forum. (CG)

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ASIAN AMERICAN EDUCATION IN ILLINOIS:

A REVIEW OF THE DATA

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ASIAN AMERICAN EDUCATION IN ILLINOIS:

A REVIEW OF THE DATA

I. PURPOSE

This report is prepared by the Pacific/Asian American Mental Health Research Center under the auspices of the Urban and Ethnic Education Unit of the Illinois State Board of Education, in consultation with Governor Thompson's Office of the Special Assistant for Asian American Affairs and the Illinois Asian American Advisory Council to the Governor. Its purpose is to conduct a state-of-the-art review of the existing knowledge base on Asian American education in the state of Illinois. To accomplish this objective, it is necessary to review information available nationwide on the educational and occupational problems of Asian Americans in general, and to utilize the findings obtained from available data routinely collected by the Illinois State Board of Education in particular. These data are:

1. Public School Fall Enrollment and Housing Report;
2. End of Year Report;
3. Public School Bilingual Census; and
4. Selected 1980 Census data for those school district with high enrollments of Asian/Pacific Islander Students.

In conjunction with the analysis of state-collected data, the Illinois State Board of Education and the Illinois Asian American Advisory Council to the Governor sponsored a forum on Educational Issues Concerning Asian Americans in Illinois, which was held at Truman College on July 2, 1985 to gather testimonies from parents, teachers, and community leaders--both in and out of Chicago--about the educational needs of Asian Americans in the state of Illinois. A complete transcript of all panel presentations and group recommendations follows this report (Appendix A). From time to time, references will be made in this report to some of the testimonies presented at that forum.

In what follows, the concept of Asian Americans as model minorities will be evaluated, the growth and composition of the Asian/Pacific Islander population reviewed, the different data sets collected by the Illinois State Board of Education described, and the analysis of findings from these data sets reported against the backdrop of the testimonies presented by concerned parents, school teachers, and community leaders. Whenever possible, findings from the national S.A.T. results and other special sample surveys are reported to shed light on the differences in the educational needs of Asian/Pacific Islanders vis-a-vis other Americans.

Finally, recommendations will be made on how to improve the usefulness and quality of data routinely collected by the Illinois State Board of Education, in order to give Asian

Americans equal access to the educational and employment opportunities afforded to majority residents in the state of Illinois.

II. ASIAN AMERICANS AS MODEL MINORITIES: MYTH OR REALITY?

Twenty years have passed since William Petersen's landmark article initiated the stereotype of success for Asian Americans (New York Times Magazine, January 9, 1966). Petersen characterized Japanese Americans as a group which pulled itself up by its bootstraps to surpass even white Americans in educational and occupational attainment. By the end of 1966, U.S. News and World Report (December 26, 1966) featured an article on the economic achievements of Chinese Americans who were also characterized as a hardworking, uncomplaining role model of diligence and achievement. During the 1970s and 80s, the popular press has continued to portray all Asian American groups as model minorities (e.g., Darby, 1982; McGrath 1983; Green, 1984; Zabarsky, 1984; McBee, 1984; Zigli, 1984; Davidson, 1985; Spencer, 1986).

This "positive" stereotype has had negative consequences for Asian Americans. It overlooks the immense diversity of the Asian American subgroups and the the vast problems encountered by recent Southeast Asian refugees and new immigrants in accessing the educational and employment opportunities available in America.

The myth of Asian Americans as successful minorities is sustained only by ignoring the following facts: (a) the existence of a bimodal distribution in income, education, and occupation; (b) the unusually high percentage of persons, households, and unrelated individuals living below the poverty level; (c) the low income-return on education; (d) the prevalence of college overqualification; and (e) the magnitude of mismatch between education and occupation.

A. Bimodal Distribution

While some of the earlier Asian American subgroups can be characterized by high levels of educational and occupational attainment, others--such as recent refugees and newer immigrants--are not even literate in their native language, much less English.

Moreover, a highly respected study (United States Commission on Civil Rights, 1978) shows that although Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, and Korean Americans equal or surpass majority Americans in median number of school years completed, the last three groups also exceed majority Americans in the percentage of the adult population with fewer than five years of education.

Data on occupational categories give a similar profile. At first glance, several sets of federal statistics seem to suggest that Asians are well off. Upon careful scrutiny, however, the relative employment positions of Asian Americans are both better and worse than that of the general population. Japanese, Chinese, and Filipino Americans hold professional and technical jobs in larger proportion than majority Americans, but they also exceed majority Americans in their proportions in the four lowest paying occupational categories (household workers, service workers, farm hands, and laborers). Wu (1980:45-52) further reports that, in union-controlled industries, Asians are less likely than whites to be engaged as workers in industries where union membership is high, with the obvious consequences of being paid less than others in the same category of occupation. Clearly, Asian Americans are not uniformly successful. Instead, their educational and occupational statistics show a bimodal distribution (Liu and Yu, 1985a).

For every Asian American in a high-prestige occupation, there are many more in low-prestige jobs. Thus, while Connie Chung, an NBC TV newscaster, is reported to earn $600,000 a year, she is only one in a handful of Chinese Americans in the United States who commands such huge salaries. For many others, the real situation is quite the opposite.

Liu and Yu (1985a: 40) stressed that, in many ways the occupational distribution of Asian Americans suggests: First, the large concentration of professional, technical and kindred workers was brought about by a policy attracting technical people to fill vacancies which could not be filled by native-born American workers. Specifically, the 1965 Amendments to the

Immigration and Naturalization Act spurred a significant influx of Asian professionals in the health and science fields. Second, this influx accentuates an existing bimodal distribution of Asian Americans in both the high- and low-prestige occupations. Third, as a result of using available statistics collected from the dominant Asian Amerian subgroups (Japanese, Chinese, and to a certain extent, Filipinos) to represent Asian/Pacific Americans, the entire Asian and Pacific Islander population's statistics have been "averaged out," thereby misrepresenting the smaller and newer Asian and Pacific Islander subgroups whose economic conditions and employment situations compare less favorably with that of white Americans.

B. Income Profile of Asian Americans

The 1980 U.S. Census reported that the median family income for Asian/Pacific Americans ($22,075) is higher than that for white Americans ($20,840). Table 1 shows the distribution of family income by selected ethnic groups. With the exception of Vietnamese and Hawaiians, a larger percentage of Asian subgroups may be found in the highest income bracket of $35,000 or more. However, at the lowest end of the family income spectrum, the percentages are also higher for every subgroup of Asian/Pacific Americans, except for the Japanese.

Please see Table 1.

In a separate paper, Liu and Yu (1985a) noted that a simple comparison of family income between white and Asian/Pacific Americans can be misleading because it disregards a number of confounded factors: (1) differences in age structure and population composition between white and Asian/Pacific Americans, the latter consisting of people at younger ages and with fewer dependents. Hence, proportionally more Asian/Pacific Americans, relative to majority white Americans, are able to engage in productive labor; (2) a larger proportion of Asian/Pacific Americans have four or more years of college, compared to white Americans; (3) Asian/Pacific Americans work more hours per week than others; (4) there are more wage earners in Asian/Pacific American families than those of other groups; and (5) Asian/Pacific Americans are concentrated geographically in urban areas where both wages and the cost of living are much higher than that found for the rest of the country.

C. Poverty Level

There is another way of making income comparisons between white and Asian/Pacific Americans--that of determining the poverty status based on the ratio of family or unrelated individual income in a given year to the poverty cut-offs for that year. This has been done using the 1980 Census data. Table 2 shows that 13.1 percent of the total Asian/Pacific Islander population fell below the poverty level, compared to only 9.4 percent for the total white population (Liu and Yu, 1985b).

Please see Table 2.

Table 3 presents the variation in poverty level between native and foreign-borns by year of immigration and country of birth. In the native category, only 9.4 percent of the families, 12.2 percent of persons, and 24.7 percent of unrelated individuals sharing a dwelling unit, had incomes in 1979 below the poverty level, while in the foreign-born group, 20.7 percent of the families that immigrated between 1970 and 1980, 23 percent of persons, and 40.7 percent of unrelated individuals sharing a living space, fall into that category. It is interesting to note that the corresponding figure for those families, persons, and unrelated individuals who immigrated before 1970 is only 8.7 percent, 10.7 percent, and 24.3 percent, respectively. Recency of immigration is thus a critical factor in accounting for the high percentage of families living below poverty level.

Please see Table 3.

Among the foreign-born families, persons, and unrelated individuals who immigrated during the last decade, those from Europe as a whole had a lower percentage below poverty (10.1, 12.4, and 30.1 percent, respectively) compared to those from Asia (19.2, 21.4, and 42.8 percent, respectively), Central America (percentage figure cannot be disaggregated from the published Census statistics for "North and Central America" but can be surmised by comparing the figure for Canada relative to the other countries), South America (18.4, 19.5, and 39.8 percent, respectively), and Africa (21.1, 26.1, and 45.7 percent, respectively).

Within the new Asian immigrant groups, the influx from China, Korea, and Vietnam was highest during the decade of the 1970s and these same groups showed the largest percentage of families, persons, and unrelated individuals with incomes in 1979 below the poverty level (17.8 percent for immigrant families from China, 15.4 percent for those from Korea, and 38.1 percent for those who arrived from Vietnam after the Fall of Saigon in 1975).

Since the social and economic structures of these countries differ considerably from that of the United States, it is reasonable to postulate that unfamiliarity with the host environment will make it much more painful for these Asian and other physically visible immigrants to cope with their socioeconomic needs and life stresses, compared to those originating from Europe and Canada. Unfortunately, little research has been conducted to examine these issues among the high-risk Asian American subgroups.

D. The Low Return of Education

The most recent U.S. data (which was based on a special study called the Survey of Income and Education conducted in 1976) show that given the same level of occupational prestige, age, education, weeks worked, hours worked last week, and average income in the state of residence, Chinese American males earn, on the average, only 77 percent and Japanese American males only 88 percent of what majority males earn. The mean earnings of Filipino males seem to be at parity with that of the majority white population. In other words, if Asian Americans seem to earn higher wages than the majority population, it is because they work longer hours, and/or had more education or other extra qualifications than what was required in their jobs (see Table 4).

For Chinese Americans, the earning ratios for adjusted incomes actually represent a decrease from what they were earning relative to white Americans in 1959 and 1969. For Japanese Americans, a similar decline was observed from 1969 to 1975.

Please see Table 4.

For women, the inequity is even more startling. Given the same sociodemographic characteristics (i.e., occupational prestige, age, education, weeks worked, hours worked last week, and average income in the state of residence), Japanese American females earn only 58 percent, Filipino American females 59 percent, and Chinese American females 70 percent of what the majority males earn (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1978).

The lot of the Japanese and Filipino American women does not seem to have improved substantially over the three time periods (i.e., 1959, 1969, and 1975). In contrast, the recent earning ratio for Chinese American women represents an improvement over the earlier periods.

A study by Sowell (1975), based on survey data of the American Council on Education, shows that Asians are often paid less than their white or black academic colleagues. This is true especially for academic professionals who have made their mark through publications. Between white and Asian Americans with equally strong Ph.D.'s and five or more publications per person, white Americans in the natural sciences had mean salaries 13.1 percent higher than Asian Americans, and white Americans in the humanities earned a mean salary that was 27.8 percent higher than their Asian collegues. For those with less than a Ph.D. degree but with published articles, white social scientists outstripped their Asian American colleagues by 64.4 percent in mean salary (Wu, 1980:53). Other data show that even college-educated whitecollar Asian Americans continue to earn less than whites with the same level of education (Li, 1980; U.S. Civil Rights Commission, 1978; Wu, 1980; Woodrum, 1981).

E. College Overqualification

Another way of understanding the extent of inequity between Asian Americans and the majority population is to examine the issue of college overqualification. The most recent nationwide data show that, compared to 45 percent of white Americans, as much as 56 percent of Filipino American males, 51 percent of Chinese American males, and 49 percent of Japanese American males with at least 1 year of college are employed in occupations which typically require less education than they have (see Table 5).

Please see Table 5.

The college overqualification rate for Japanese males was 10 percent higher than the rate for majority males. The overqualification rate rises to 15 percent for Chinese males and and 26 percent for Filipino males.

Among Asian females, especially Chinese, overqualification is also a problem. Compared with 45 percent of white American women, some 51 percent of Chinese American females, 41 percent of Japanese American females, and 39 percent of Filipino American females with at least 1 year of college are employed in occupations which typically require less education than they have (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1978). Thus, the college overqualification rate for Chinese American women is 14 percent higher than that found for white-American women.

Given that a larger proportion of Asian Americans than the majority white population have 4 or more years of college, the extent of underemployment beyond the 1-year college level can be expected to be even more substantial. Consequently, earning differentials for college-educated persons are likely to loom large for these Asian groups compared with white Americans.

Table 6 shows the median earnings of Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, and white Americans with 4 or more years of college who had some earnings during the year. It is worthy to note that at this high level of education, males and females in all three Asian groups clearly do not command the same amount of earnings as majority males with the same educational attainment. Among men, Chinese fare the worst, earning only 84 percent of the average for majority males with 4 years or more of college. Over the three time periods (i.e., 1959, 1969, and 1975), their earning ratios have not improved appreciably.

Despite a high level of education, Chinese women earned only 42 percent of the average earnings for majority males in 1975. Although this represents an improvement in earning ratios over time for Chinese women, it is still quite low. Japanese and

Filipino American women have a higher earning ratios than Chinese American women, but their ratios remain low (55 and 60 percent, respectively) in comparison to both majority males and males of the same ethnic group.

Please see Table 6.

F. Mismatch between Education and Occupation

In his presentation at the Forum on Educational Issues Concerning Asian Americans in Illinois, William T. Liu, Director of the Pacific/Asian American Mental Health Research Center, pointed up another problem uniquely prevalent among Asian Americans--that is, the magnitude of mismatch between education and occupation. A worker is mismatched if his/her education is greater than one standard deviation above the mean education of co-workers in his/her current occupation. Three variables are necessary to determine mismatch for any worker: completed years of schooling, current occupation, and mismatch cut-off point for the occupation. Using the U.S. Census data, Li (1980) shows that the mismatch between education and occupation is greatest for Asian Americans (16.8 percent for all ages), as compared with white (10.6 percent) and black Americans (7.3 percent).

In the age range from 16 to 19 years, the Asian-white difference in mismatch between education and occupation is about 2 percent (7.1 percent for Asian Americans compared with 5.4 percent for white Americans).

However, between the ages of 20-24 and 25-34 years, that difference in the rates of mismatch is even more striking. In the age group 20-24 years, the rate of mismatch for black Americans is only 9.3 percent, for white Americans 18 percent, but for Asian Americans it reaches 30 percent--or three times that found for black Americans.

In the next higher age range, 25-34 years, when most adults are expected to be engaged in some form of employment, the Asian mismatch rate (23.8 percent) is twice that of the white rate (12.4 percent), and three times that of the black rate (8.8 percent). Thus, it is not uncommon to see an Asian American with a Ph.D. in Physics teaching automobile mechanics in high school, a post-doctoral sociologist working in an undergraduate social work program, a surgeon working as a paramedic, an M.B.A. working as a secretary, or an educator working as a teacher's aide. In some circles within the Asian American community, such individuals are the object of envy because they have a "respectable" job or earn a "high" income; others must be content to wait on tables or drive taxicabs despite their doctorate or professional degrees.

Of the different occupational categories, the extent of mismatch is greatest (37.3 percent) for Asian Americans in the professional, technical, managerial and administrative positions, followed by clerical and sales workers (31.6 percent). The mismatch is smallest for Asian Americans working as private household employees (0.9 percent) and as laborers and non-farm workers (2.3 percent).

These data clearly indicate that the occupational returns on education, and the income returns on occupation are lower for Asian Americans than for white Americans. Suffice it to say that the stereotype of success is a myth which masks the gravity of underemployment among Asian Americans, and overlooks the diversity both within and across Asian American subgroups.

The picture becomes even more complex with the influx of Asian immigrants and refugees in the last fifteen years. Many newcomers have college educations and graduate degrees, but others come from rural preliterate societies. As the Urban and Ethnic Education Unit of the Illinois State Board of Education recognizes, Asian Americans represent diverse language and ethnic backgrounds; some are well-to-do suburbanites while others are lower-income urban dwellers; some are recent arrivals to America while others are second- and third-generation Americans; some were pulled to America by its promise of opportunity while others were pushed from their homelands by political oppression; and some have strong family support networks while others have only weak ties or are here alone.

III. GROWTH AND COMPOSITION OF ASIAN AMERICAN POPULATIONS

Asian Americans are the fastest growing segment of the U.S. population today. According to the 1980 Census, the number of persons who originate from the Asia/Pacific Triangle has increased 120 percent--to 3.5 million--over the past decade while the number of white Americans has grown by 6.4 percent, black Americans by 17.4 percent and Hispanics by 60.8 percent. Factors accounting for most of this increase of Asian/Pacific Islander Americans are immigration, births, and the inclusion of new groups in the Census definition. However, unlike other ethnic groups in America who share a common language or descent, the Asian/Pacific Islander population is extremely heterogeneous (Yu, Chang, Liu, and Kan, 1984).

A. Ethnic Diversity among Asian Americans

In the strictest sense, the term Asian/Pacific Americans is a meaningful concept only insofar as it identifies the geographic origins of a group of people who are visibly and culturally different from the majority white population. However, the term Asian/Pacific Islander comprises a number of diverse groups which, in many ways, are as different from one another as they are from other races. More than 40 Asian/Pacific Islander populations were identified in the 1980 Census. Among these, the major groups are Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Asian Indian, Korean, Vietnamese, Hawaiian, Samoan, Guamanian, Cambodian, Laotian, Pakistani, and Fijian.

Methodologically, the heterogeneity of the population makes it impossible to interpret any statistics obtained for the entire Asian/Pacific Islander group. Nonetheless, in the absence of viable alternatives, the importance of having at least some preliminary baseline information on this ethnic group seems to override the disadvantages of lumping such diverse populations together.

Table 7 shows the number and percent distribution for some of these groups in 1980 compared with 1970.

Please see Table 7.

Historically, Chinese were the first Asians to enter the United States and the first group to be legally barred from becoming U.S. citizens (by the Exclusion Act of 1882). However, they emerged as the largest Asian group in 1980, with a population of more than 800,000. (Adjusting for undercount, some experts believe that the true figure might be around 1 million.)

The Japanese, who were the largest group in 1970, fell to third in 1980, surpassed by Filipinos who were the third largest group in 1970 (Yu, Chang, Liu, and Kan, 1984). These increases were largely a result of changes in the U.S. immigration laws.

B. Impact of Immigration

The 1965 Immigration Act, which amended the McCarran-Walter Act of 1952, abolished the quota system that restricted the number of immigrants from the Asia/Pacific Triangle area to a little over 100 per year per country. The 1965 Act also redefined the preference system of immigration by giving first preference to unmarried sons and daughters of U.S. citizens, and relaxing the requirement to obtain labor clearances for certain classes of immigrants (Keely, 1971; Keely, 1974). The most significant change was the elimination of the national origins system, which divided the world into "Eastern" and "Western" hemispheres and restricted the immigration of people from the Eastern hemisphere. Beginning with the fiscal year 1969, immigrant visas were distributed on a first-come, first-served basis regardless of country of origin. A total of 170,000 visas per annum was established for non-Western Hemisphere countries with the proviso that no one country could use more than 20,000 visas a year. Thus ended a 44-year policy of using national origin as one of the major criteria for admitting immigrants to the United States. The passage of a law in 1981 allotted a separate immigration quota of 20,000 persons per year for Taiwan in addition to the 20,000 assigned to Mainland China. These changes greatly increased the proportion of legal immigrants from Asian/Pacific Island countries. From 1970-79, Asians accounted for 34 percent of all legal immigration, increasing to 48 percent from 1980-84.

Table 8 shows the proportion of foreign born among the six largest groups of Asian Americans. While fewer than one third of the Japanese were foreign born, nearly two thirds of the Chinese and Filipinos are immigrants, and 90 percent of the Vietnamese enumerated in the last Census were born outside of the United States.

Please see Table 8.

Based on calculations of natural increase and continued immigration, Gardner, Robey, and Smith (1985) estimate that the Asian American population grew by about 1.6 million between 1980 and the third quarter of 1985. They estimate a total Asian American population of 5.2 million in 1985 which represents an annual growth rate of 7 percent compared to a rate of 1.1 percent for the total U.S. population in the same time period. While Cambodian, Laotian, and Vietnamese populations lead the list in terms of percent increase, the authors estimate that in the last five years, the Chinese and Filipinos increased their numbers to exceed the one million mark.

C. Asian Americans in Illinois

In 1980, approximately 5 percent of the total Asian American population lived in Illinois giving this state the fourth highest concentration of Asian Americans--a rank which it held in 1970 as well. Only California, Hawaii, and New York (in that order) have larger Asian/Pacific Islander populations.

The total Asian/Pacific Islander population in Illinois numbered about 172,200 in 1980, up from 48,808 in 1970. State totals for Japanese, Chinese, Filipinos, Koreans, Asian Indians, Vietnamese, Hawaiians, Guamanians, and Samoans are presented in Table 9 as well as totals for the six counties with the largest concentration of Asian/Pacific Islanders.

Please see Table 9.

Since the focus of this report is on the school-age population, the numbers of Asian/Pacific Islander children less than 19 years old are given at the state level for the following age categories: under 5 years old, 5 to 9 years, 10 to 14 years, and 15 to 19 years (Table 10).

Please see Table 10.

The same age information is presented for each of the counties with a high concentration of specific Asian/Pacific Islander groups (Table 11). Due to the small number of Pacific Islander Americans (i.e. Hawaiians, Guamanians, and Samoans) in Illinois, subsequent discussion will be limited to Asian Americans, unless otherwise specified.

Please see Table 11.

D. Research on Asian American Education in Illinois

To date, research pertaining to Asian American education in Illinois has been practically nil. One exception is the Northwestern University study conducted by Lee, Schneider, and Werner (1983). They interviewed 6th-grade Chinese, Korean, and Japanese students, their parents, and their teachers in two public schools in Illinois and compared these Asian students with white classmates of similar economic backgrounds. Although Asian students outperformed their white classmates on standardized math and reading test scores, they had poorer verbal and social skills. The researchers found that because teachers expect their Asian pupils to be shy and studious, they do not call on them in classroom discussion as often as other students. The negative consequence to Asian students of this stereotype is that their educational needs for improved social and verbal skills are being systematically neglected. Asian parents also differed from white parents by emphasizing education as a means of advancement for their children, giving at-home instruction in writing and math, showing what educators perceived to be greater respect for teachers, and stressing that superior academic performance would reflect well on the entire family.

While this study is a valuable source of data, very little other research has been conducted on school-aged children of Asian origin residing in Illinois. The only other existing data sources are those routinely compiled by the Illinois State Board of Education.

IV. THE ILLINOIS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION (ISBE) DATA SETS

Four major data tapes were prepared for the Pacific/Asian American Mental Health Research Center by the Research and Statistics Section of the ISBE Department of Planning, Research and Evaluation. Three of these tapes contain information collected by the state. The fourth one consists of selected 1980 Census characteristics aggregated at the school district level. A brief description of each data source and the problems it presents for analysis follows.

A. Public School Fall Enrollment and Housing Report, 1980-84

In the Public School Fall Enrollment and Housing Report, annual data are collected on the name and location of primary and secondary schools in the state with the total number of students by grade and sex from pre-kindergarten through grade 12. Additional information on special education and non-graded programs, personnel in non-certified staff positions, and non-certified new hires are also routinely recorded in this data collection system. However, only non-certified new hires (e.g. teacher aides, clerks, architects, cooks, and security) are enumerated by sex and ethnicity. For the years 1980 to 1984, no information is available on student enrollments by ethnicity.

Beginning with the 1984-85 report, which was not available in computer-ready form at the time of this analysis, information has been collected on total number of students by grade, sex, and racial/ethnic distribution. Information on sex and ethnicity of all non-certified staff and non-certified new hires are also collected. ISBE guidelines state that "an employee (student) may be included in the group to which he or she appears to belong, identifies with, or is regarded in the community as belonging. However, no person should be counted in more than one race/ethnic group (1984-85 Public School Fall Enrollment and Housing Report)." According to the questionnaire form for 1984-85, Asian or Pacific Islanders are defined as persons having origins in the Far East, Southeast Asia, the Indian Subcontinent, or the

Pacific Islands. The addition of racial/ethnic information beginning in 1984 on pupils housed at each facility improves the utility of this data set for future research purposes.

B. End of Year Report, 1980-84

This data collection system focuses on pupil enrollment and includes information on the number of full-time 12th grade students by sex, total district enrollment by sex, number of 8th grade and high school graduates by sex, and the total number of dropouts in each of the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grades by sex and racial/ethnic categories. Additional information is collected on the aggregate of days absent by all pupils within the district, area of the district in square miles, number of students suspended from elementary or high school once or more than once by ethnicity and sex, number of truants and chronic truants by sex but not ethnicity, and number of students expelled in elementary and high school by sex and ethnicity. In addition, school district bond and tax referenda information and work stoppage information for nonsupervisory personnel are available. However, this data set lacks important information on the ethnicity of full-time students at each grade level making analyses of Asian American dropouts and suspensions impossible.

C. Public School Bilingual Census, 1980-85

Established explicitly for the purpose of determining the number of students with a non-English background and of ascertaining which of them are performing below average in English language proficiency, this data-collection system is not a race, nationality or surname report. Students are counted exclusively on the basis of their language background.

The number of pupils with non-English backgrounds and the number of pupils with English proficiency below average and equal to or above average are also recorded for each of fifty separate languages. The information is collected at the school and district level but not broken down by grade. Furthermore, those Asian or Pacific Islander students with only an English language background may be excluded from the enumeration.

D. Selected 1980 Census Information by School Districts

A computer tape containing selected 1980 Census information arranged by school districts with high enrollments of Asian American students was prepared for this report. Only those tables with information specifying race are examined for the purposes of this report. These include: total population by race, total population by sex and race for specified age categories, total number of households by race and household type, total number of persons 3 years and older enrolled in school by grade of school and race, total number of persons 25 years and older by highest grade completed and race, total number of families with given income ranges by race, percent of persons with incomes above poverty level by race, and total number of persons with gross rent in specified ranges by race. The data, presented in aggregate form, does not allow for separate identification of Asian subgroups.

Together, these data sets provide the principal sources of statistical information for this report. In addition, they are supplemented by the national S.A.T. results, the last three Illinois Student Achievement reports, and the Racial/Ethnic Surveys conducted by Cook county district #299 (the city of Chicago) for 1980, 1981, 1982, 1983, and 1984. Where appropriate, findings from other studies and testimonies presented by concerned teachers, parents, and community leaders at the forum on Educational Issues Concerning Asian Americans in Illinois are also cited.

V. ASIAN AMERICAN EDUCATION IN ILLINOIS: FINDINGS

A. School Enrollment and Dropouts

The U.S. Census provides some data on nationwide school enrollment for Asian Americans and other ethnic groups. However, data on dropouts and other subtle indicators of failure to succeed in the educational system, such as lack of English proficiency or poor verbal skills, are not routinely collected as part of the federal statistics systems. Considerable resourcefulness is required to obtain and examine these issues for Asian American populations.

(1) The National Enrollment Picture

According to 1980 Census figures, the percentages of Asian Americans attending school are on par with, if not consistently higher than those of white Americans. In the aggregate, well over 96 percent of Asian American 7 to 15 year olds are enrolled in school, compared to 98.8 percent for white Americans (see Table 12). Broken down by specific ethnic groups, the elementary school enrollment rates for most Asian Americans--except for the Vietnamese--are not that much different from the rate for white Americans.

Please see Table 12.

Concentrating for the moment on high school age childen 16-17 years old, Table 12 shows that 89.0 percent of white Americans are enrolled in school. The corresponding figures for Asian youths are: 90.2 percent of the Vietnamese, 92.2 percent of the Asian Indians, 92.8 percent of the Filipinos, 94.9 percent of the Koreans, 96.0 percent of the Chinese, and 96.2 percent of the Japanese. These statistics have often been used to suggest that

Asian Americans do not have any problems. But it is important to realize that these statistics may mask delayed education or learning difficulties.

According to the testimonies presented by educational experts, parents, and teachers in the Conference on Educational Issues Concerning Asian Americans in Illinois, some 16- and 17-year-old Asian immigrant children may be behind the appropriate grade for their age. Armed with considerable schooling in the old country but unable to speak English fluently, these students have been put back a year or two in grade level upon arrival in the United States. Though physically smaller than the other pupils in the same class, they are older. Because newcomer students must go through a period of linguistic and cultural adjustment, they are often described by their teachers as shy, introverted, passive, and "well-behaved." They do not participate as freely with fellow classmates in games or group activities, at best preferring to stand by and watch other students play. They ask few questions even when they do not understand the lessons; and the only subject they can understand without a good command of English is mathematics which does not require extensive verbal skills. In his testimony at the forum on Educational Issues, Dr. Tran Trong Hai succinctly illustrated the typical plight of the neglected newcomer student.

According to recent reports in the media (Kaufman 1986), other immigrant children have been placed in higher grades based upon their age even though they had minimal education in their native country. This happens often to refugee children for whom birth certificate records have been destroyed by war and appropriate grade placements difficult because the parents may not be sufficiently sophisticated about the educational system in their home country or the United States to assist the school in making the right decision. Too timid to admit that they do not understand the lesson, and feeling too old to be placed in school with children 2 to 6 years younger than they are, these students are likely to get into trouble. Some may engage in anti-social behavior, while others may find their situation so unbearable as to commit suicide (Kaufman, 1986).

It is debatable whether placing a student in a grade higher than is appropriate for his age is beneficial or harmful to him/her. At best, it can produce a "Pygmalion effect," generating a chain reaction of cumulatively positive feedbacks and optimal achievement behavior, as demonstrated in the famous experiment, Pygmalion in the Classroom, conducted by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968). At worst, it can generate a series of false expectations and unrealistic demands on the part of both parents and students, thereby paving the way for immense frustrations and mental health problems later in life when the dreams of giftedness are not fulfilled.

Returning to Table 12, one notes that between the ages of 3 and 6 years, large percentages of Asian Americans are also enrolled in school (see Table 12). While 32 percent of white American 3 and 4 year olds attend school, Asian American enrollment for these ages range from 27.6 percent of Filipinos and 29.4 percent of Vietnamese to 42.1 percent of Koreans, 47.9 percent of Chinese, 51.4 percent of Asian Indians, and 58.0 percent of Japanese.

Here, it is important to note that within the Asian American population itself, subgroup differences in school enrollment span both extremes, with Filipinos and Vietnamese showing lower-than-white American rates while Koreans, Chinese, Asian Indians, and Japanese displaying higher-than-white American rates. Just what the reasons are for this disparity is not clear. What is clear is that within-group differences for Asian Americans are of such magnitude (the Japanese rate being more than twice that reported for Filipinos) that caution is warranted in overgeneralizing findings from one ethnic group to another.

Among 5 and 6 year olds, 86.1 percent of white children are in school while 83.6 percent of Vietnamese, 88.4 percent of Koreans, 89.1 percent of Filipinos, 91.4 percent of Chinese, 92.3 percent of Asian Indians, and 94.6 percent of Japanese 5 and 6 year olds were enrolled in school.

It appears that the large pre-school enrollment of Asian American children is due to the large percentages of dual-career families among Asian Americans. Since both parents work, sending a child to school provides a solution to the babysitting problems which beset all working parents and it is considered a better investment in the child's future than hiring a babysitter. The availability of public school kindergartens in urban areas, where most Asian Americans establish their homes, may also be another factor in explaining the large percentages of very young Asian Americans who attend school.

Clearly, Asian Americans begin their school careers earlier than other racial and ethnic groups, but whether this gives them an educational advantage remains to be studied. Moreover, school enrollment by age has not exhibited a consistent ethnic pattern. This suggests that a number of factors, such as different waves of immigration, differential age compositions and fertility rates between groups, variations in socioeconomic status and cultural values, as well as child-rearing practices may be at work, and remain to be studied.

Considering that over one-third (36 percent) of the total Asian American population are 19 years old or younger (Table 13), the education of the young is an issue too important to ignore.

Please see Table 13.

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(2) The Statewide Enrollment Picture

Similar age-based figures on enrollment for the various Asian American groups are not available for students in Illinois. However, we can examine the percentage of Asians enrolled in nursery, elementary, high school, or college among all Asians aged 3 years and older who attend school based on the district in which the student resides. This information comes from the fourth data set prepared by ISBE (described in Section IV, part D) and is presented in Table 14.

Please see Table 14.

Compared to other groups, Asians have a higher percentage enrolled in college (see Table 14). For example, in the city of Chicago school district (Cook #299), about 37 percent of all Asians students attend college. The corresponding figure for white Americans is 27 percent (Table not shown due to space limitation).

At the elementary and high school level, the percentage for the City of Chicago (Cook #299) is lower for Asian Americans (43.3 percent and 16.1 percent, respectively) than for white Americans (46.5 percent and 24.0 percent, respectively). It is possible that a sizable proportion of Asian American parents living in the city of Chicago district (Cook #299) may have sent their children to private or parochial, rather than public schools.

But, in the lowest grades, Asians have a slight edge over white Americans in nursery-school attendance in the City of Chicago (Cook #299) with 3.7 percent attending at this level versus 2.8 percent of all white enrollees.

Overall, Asian American school enrollment at nursery, elementary, high school, and college levels varies considerably among the districts. More than half of all Asian American students who live in Cook county district #65 (Evanston) attend college compared to about 15 percent of the Asian American enrollees living in DuPage county district #58 (Downers Grove).

However, these same districts reverse their positions when it comes to the percentage of its students enrolled in nursery school. The Downers Grove district leads the list with 10.5 percent of its students enrolled in preschool, while Evanston nursery schoolers represent only 3.7 percent of all enrolled Asian American students in this district.

The difference observed above may be an artifact of the age composition, sex roles, and family life cycle of Asian Americans residing in the two districts. Because of the proximity to National Argonne Laboratories, those living in Downers Grove may consist mostly of highly-skilled professionals and technicians or managers who are part of the baby-boom generation. As such, they are married couples nearing the end of their family formation cycle. With the youngest child placed in nursery school, the mother is able to devote herself to professional or technical work outside the home. These couples either do not have college-bound children yet, or if they do, the children may have gone elsewhere for university education because of the absence of a major university nearby.

On the other hand, the presence of a major university in Evanston which pulls students to reside in this district may explain the large percentage of college students among all enrollees.

(3) School Dropouts

A frequently-used measure of failure to achieve in school is the dropout rate of a particular ethnic or racial group. According to the ISBE guidelines, a dropout is "any student 16 years old or more, who has been removed from the district enrollment roster for any reason other than death, extended illness, graduation or completion of a program of studies and (who) did not transfer to another school system."

State figures reflect the number of dropouts for a specific grade in a given year. Only cross-sectional analyses can be performed on such data giving a snapshot of the dropout rate among all ninth, tenth, eleventh, or twelfth grade students in a specific year. The state data prepared for this report cannot be used longitudinally to follow the students of a particular cohort to see which students complete their high school career on schedule. Furthermore, the ISBE data does not provide a code indicating the reason a student left school. Hence, the causes of student attrition which may differ considerably from one ethnic or racial group to another, cannot be determined. Students may drop out in order to enlist in the armed services, to get a job, or to have a baby. These drawbacks in the definition of dropouts make it a poor measure of academic failure for all students in the Illinois public school system.

Unfortunately, the statewide dropout data for Asian American high school students is of limited use because there are no published denominators on the total Asian American enrollment for each grade of high school. Without such information, it was not possible to calculate statewide dropout rates for Asian Americans. This situation has been corrected beginning with the 1984-85 Fall Enrollment and Housing Report. However, as of this writing, the data for earlier years were not yet tabulated.

Therefore, only an examination of the dropout problem for the city of Chicago school district (Cook #299) is feasible. The latter conducts its own annual racial/ethnic survey at the end of October. Because this survey is based on teacher observation, it is subject to unknown errors. The total high school enrollment for different ethnic groups are presented in Table 15. The data indicate that from 1980 to 1983, the number of Asian American students increased by about 11 percent, while enrollments for white American students in the City of Chicago decreased by 26 percent, black American students declined by 13 percent.

Please see Table 15.

Using the ISBE figures, cross-sectional dropout rates can be calculated in two ways. One way is to divide the number of Asian dropouts (Table 16) by the total number of Asian American high school students (Table 15) to produce the rate of dropouts among all Asian American students. This is shown in Table 17.

Please see Table 16.

Please see Table 17.

Another way is to divide the number of Asian American dropouts (Table 16) by the total number of dropouts (regardless of ethnic background) for each of the four years. This gives the rate of Asian American dropouts among all dropouts (Table 18).

On both counts Asian American high-school students appear to do relatively well compared with other racial/ethnic groups in Chicago. Less than 5 percent of all Asian American high-school students dropped out in any year (see Table 17); and Asian American dropouts represented a little over 1 percent of all dropouts every year from 1980 to 1984 (Table 18).

Please see Table 18.

Although ISBE figures do not permit a longitudinal analysis of the dropout process, Hess and Lauber (1985) calculated such rates for the Chicago public high schools graduating classes of 1982-84. Instead of determining the percentage of dropouts among all enrolled students, they "tracked" all entering freshmen who entered a Chicago Public High School as part of the graduating classes of 1982, 1983, and 1984 and followed "each student's entry, whether or not he/she transferred to another Chicago Public High School, transferred out of the Chicago system, graduated, or dropped out (Hess and Lauber, 1985: 2)."

This procedure produced rates significantly higher than those calculated by either the Chicago Board of Education or the Illinois State Board of Education. The Hess and Lauber figures are much more reflective of high school careers and the process of completing one's schooling on schedule. They calculated an overall dropout rate of 43 percent for the class of 1982 which means that "more than two out of every five entering students left school before graduation (Hess and Lauber, 1985: 5)." Asians fared the best of all racial and ethnic groups with a 19 percent dropout rate. Nonetheless, the fact that nearly 1 out of every 5 Asian Americans have dropped out is a substantial figure which portends the emergence of an insidious problem.

About one in four (23.2 percent) Asian males dropped out from the graduating class of 1982, but fewer than one in six (14.6 percent) Asian females failed to complete high school with their entering cohort. Hence, like the majority population, Asian American males are at higher risk of dropping out of high school than Asian American females.

Little is known about the sociodemographic profile of these dropouts. There is some indication from media reports that immigrant children form a major segment of the annual dropouts. As newcomers, they may drop out because of economic hardship or because they find themselves trapped in an environment with which they cannot cope effectively. Some may experience loss of self-respect due to their great difficulties in coping with classroom lectures, school work, and social life. At home, their parents are too busy trying to make a living and simply cannot help them with their homework. This lack of parental support stands in sharp contrast to the strong pressure to do well in school since the parents feel they have made too much of a sacrifice to come to this country for their children's education. In school, the child who attempts to make friends finds that he/she is often misunderstood. Appropriate behavior with the opposite sex, in particular, is impossible to learn from textbooks, and painfully difficult to learn by experience. It is certainly not a subject that they feel they can discuss with their parents, who would inevitably think that studying is better than making friends--

especially with the opposite sex. Trapped between different worlds, the immigrant child is likely to feel hopeless and demoralized. Dropping out becomes a way of coping with life.

Even though by all measures the dropout rates for Asian American high-school students are smaller than for any other group, the waste of human capital should not be ignored. Moreover, educational disruption has lifelong consequences for future learning and employment status, not to mention mental health.

Dropout data, of course, represents the most obvious and drastic form of educational disruption. More subtle forms of educational failure exist that knows no age or grade boundaries. One example is poor verbal skills; another is lack of proficiency in English. Special studies have yet to be conducted in the state of Illinois to examine these two issues which many researchers believe characterize the most serious obstacles faced by children of Asian immigrants.

(4) Subtle Forms of Failure: Lack of Verbal Skills

Nationwide results from the 1980-81 S.A.T. test indicate that, across the board, Asian Americans have consistently lower median verbal scores than white Americans with the same level of parental income (see Tables 19 and 20).

Please see Table 19.

At the lowest income level, under $6,000, the median S.A.T. verbal score for Asian/Pacific Americans is only 299, compared to 284 for black and 404 for white Americans (Table 19). The Asian-black difference is a mere 15 points, compared to a dramatic 105-point difference between Asian and white Americans. As parental income increases, the gap between Asian/Pacific and white Americans narrows, suggesting the influence of the income factor on verbal proficiency (see Table 20). At the highest income level, that difference is diminished but not eliminated or reversed.

Please see Table 20.

It is interesting to note that the magnitude of the Asian-black difference in median S.A.T. verbal scores while increasing with higher parental incomes, continues to stay at less than 50 points until the cut-off income of $24,000. Recalling that the median family income for the United States in 1980 was approximately $20,000, this signifies that the lack of verbal skills among Asian Americans is not confined solely to the poor.

Even those with moderate family incomes suffer a distinct disadvantage in verbal communication, performing no better than black Americans by less than 50 points until the parental income cut-off point of $24,000.

Viewed another way, the dramatic difference in median S.A.T. verbal scores between Asian and white Americans did not drop to less than 50 points until the parental annual income cut-off of $24,000, which is what more than 50 percent of the U.S. families lived on in 1980.

In contrast, the alleged Asian American aptitude in mathemathics, compared with white Americans, did not result in an excess of median S.A.T. math score of more than 54 points. At the lowest parental income bracket, the Asian-white median S.A.T. math score difference is 50 points; that difference decreases with increasing income until the highest bracket, $50,000 and over, where the difference is largest, 54 points.

Certainly, the Asian American disadvantage in verbal aptitude is much more substantial and pernicious than its "advantage" in mathematical aptitude, especially at income levels where 50 percent of the families in the United States belonged in 1980.

Additional supporting evidence may be found in the 1982-83 median S.A.T. scores. Table 21 presents the differences in verbal and math scores between Asian/Pacific and white Americans, for the same intervals of parental income as the two previous tables. Over time, the gap in median verbal scores between the two groups has widened from 105 for income under $6,000 in 1980-81 to 150 points in 1982-83. Likewise, for the next income bracket ($6,000-11,999), the discrepancy increased from 81 in the earlier period to 113 points in the later one, suggesting that the two poorest groups are doing worse as time progresses (see Table 21).

Please see Table 21.

On the other hand, the Asian/Pacific and white American difference in median math scores seem to be less pronounced for the same income groups over the same period of time. From a difference in median math scores of 50 points for the poorest group (under $6,000), and 48 points for those with incomes between $6,000 and $11,999 in 1980-81, the difference for 1982-83 dropped to 16 points for the poorest group and 36 points for the next poorer group, respectively. These findings suggest that the so-called Asian American "advantage" in mathematics is greatly exaggerated. Moreover, while the inter-ethnic disparity in median math scores appears to have decreased over time, the discrepancy in median verbal scores seems to have broadened to the detriment of the Asian Americans.

The increased reunification of immigrant families made possible by the 1965 Immigration and Naturalization Act will continue to draw large numbers of young immigrant children whose lack of English language proficiency will pull the median S.A.T. verbal score even lower. Although knowledge of the mean scores and standard deviations are necessary to make conclusive judgments about these different S.A.T. data sets, the consistent drop over time in median verbal scores for Asian/Pacific Americans across all income groups--except for the highest one (over $50,000)--is worrisome.

Besides the S.A.T. results, another longitudinal study based on a national probability sample survey, has produced corroborative evidence that in both math and science tests, Asian American students did not score significantly higher than white American students. But the researchers found that in verbal skills tests (vocabulary, reading, and writing combined), the Asian-white difference was statistically significant (Peng, Owings, and Fetters, 1984). Furthermore, the recent immigrant (those here less than 6 years) had a slower learning growth in verbal skills when they were reinterviewed two years later, but had the same growth rate in mathematics and science as white American students (Peng, Owings, and Fetters, 1984). School experience explained a larger proportion of the variance (7 percent) in verbal skills than race or ethnicity (4 percent), thereby suggesting the viability of remedial measures in improving the verbal skills of Asian American students.

(5) Lack of English Proficiency

The recent immigration influx from the Asia/Pacific Triangle means that a considerable proportion of Asian/Pacific Americans are born and perhaps educated in their early years outside of the United States. According to the 1980 Census, in the Asian and Pacific Islander group, 58.6 percent are foreign-born, compared to 28.6 percent of persons of Spanish origin, 4.9 percent of white Americans, and 3.1 percent of black Americans (Liu and Yu, 1985b).

One consequence of the high percentage of foreign-born is the transmission of a non-English language as the vehicle for communication within the family. Published Census estimates of language spoken at home by persons five years and over suggest that the Chinese, Filipino, Korean, and Vietnamese languages are spoken at home by more than 90 percent of the persons who identify themselves as belonging to these respective ethnic groups (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983b: Table 256). The percentage speaking other Asian (e.g., the Cambodian, Laotian, and Hmong) languages in their homes were not tabulated or published, but it can be expected to be extremely high.

As such, lack of English proficiency is a real problem for Asian American school-age children because they are likely to come from homes where a language other than English is spoken regularly. Unfortunately, statistics are lacking on the prevalence of this problem nationwide. The Bilingual Census, collected by ISBE at all grade levels and reported in district-wide aggregate form for all Asian Americans, provides an approximate measure of the English-language proficiency problem of Asian American students in the state of Illinois.

B. ANALYSIS OF THE BILINGUAL CENSUS DATA: 1984-85

Conducted annually, the Bilingual Census seeks to identify students who either speak as their mother tongue, a language other than English or who have a family background where a language other than English is spoken in the home. Both types of students are identified as having a non-English background. In addition, the Bilingual Census enumerates the number of students performing below average in English language proficiency. Analyses were made of the results from the 1984-85 school year Bilingual Census. The latter was used because of the availability of a specially prepared count of all Asian American pupils in selected districts of Illinois with the highest Asian enrollments based on the 1984-85 Public School Fall Enrollment and Housing report--the first ISBE data collection system to produce a count of the total Asian American public school population.

(1) Non-English Background

Table 22 provides information on the percentage of Asian American students with a non-English background, which ranges from a low of 14 percent in Cook county district #83 (Mannheim) to a high of 100 percent in DuPage county #200 (Community Unit--Wheaton). The mode is 66 percent and the median is 68 percent. In fourth-fifths of the districts with the highest Asian American enrollment enumerated in the table, more than 66 percent of all Asian American students are identified as having a non-English background. Indeed, for 95 percent of the districts enumerated, more than half of all the Asian American students have a non-English background.

Please see Table 22.

(2) Magnitude of the English Language Proficiency Problem

While some non-English background Asians are American-born English speakers living in a home in which a non-English language is spoken to parents or relatives residing in the same household, others are non-native speakers of English needing special language training. In either case, those Asian students who are below average in English language proficiency according to guidelines established by ISBE are counted in the Bilingual Census.

Analysis of the data indicates that English language deficiency ranges from a low of 5.8 percent of all non-English background Asian students in DeKalb county district #428 (DeKalb) and DuPage county district #99 (Community H. S. Downers Grove) to a high of 47.2 percent in Kane county district #46 (Elgin). This means that, based on the results of an English language proficiency test, almost half of the 1,125 non-English background Asian students in the Elgin district perform below average.

Cook county district #299 (Chicago) ranks second in the percentage of non-English background students who do poorly on the language proficiency test but places first in terms of the sheer number of students whose English language needs are not being met. Roughly two thirds of this district's 11,400 Asian American students come from non-English backgrounds and nearly half (44.7 percent) of these students do poorly in the English exam. Overall, for almost half of the districts enumerated in Table 22, more than 1 out of every 5 Asian American students with a non-English background scored below average in English.

In short, there are close to 3,300 (44.7% x 7367 = 3293) non-English background Asian American students in Chicago whose language needs are being poorly served by the public school system as measured by the Bilingual Census. Combining all of the Illinois school districts with the highest Asian American enrollments, a total of over 5,300 non-English background Asian American students perform below average in English proficiency.

Ranking the districts on both the percentage of non-English background students among all Asian American students and again on the percent of non-English background Asian American students who performed below average in English, one can obtain a crude measure of some districts that are doing poorly, and others that are doing well.

Districts which are "doing poorly" have high percentages of non-English background students and high percentages of these students who perform below the district average on the English language exam, while districts that are "doing well" have high percentages of non-English background students and low percentages of non-English background Asian students who perform below average.

Using this dual ranking system, the three districts doing the worst in meeting the language needs of their Asian American students are Kane county district #46 (Elgin), and Cook county district #299 (Chicago), both mentioned above, and DuPage community unit #200 (Wheaton). This is evidenced by the fact that 100 percent of its Asian American students have a non-English background and about 41 percent of these students do poorly on the English proficiency test.

Conversely, three other districts should be noted for their relative "success" in meeting the language needs of their non-English background Asian students. In Will county district #365U (Valley View), 95 percent of the 579 Asian American students are non-English background but only 11.5 percent performed below average on the English test. In the two other districts about 6 percent of the non-English background students performed below the average of their classmates, despite relatively high percentages of non-English background students--77 percent in DuPage county #58 (Downers Grove) and 90 percent in Kane county #129 (Aurora West).

Possible reasons for a school district's "success" may be its effective language programs for the limited English proficient (LEP), or its tendency to attract non-English background students who have been in this country for a while and are now more proficient in English. A third reason that a district may appear successful is that the definition of "non-English background" itself confounds household language composition with actual English language ability of students. That is, a third generation Asian-American student who speaks only English but lives with non-English speaking relatives may, for purposes of the Bilingual Census, be counted as coming from a family background where a language other than English is spoken in the home.

Typically, the outperformance of Asian American pupils is discussed in term of standardized test scores such as the S.A.T. or IQ. But for the state of Illinois, the only test administered to all students regardless of grade level which even begins to approximate a standardized test is the Bilingual Census English language proficiency test. Data from other types of standardized test results would be helpful in clarifying the unique problems faced by Asian American students in the Illinois school system. Unfortunately, such data are seldom routinely collected by ISBE.

The only other standardized test results made available to the Pacific/Asian American Mental Health Research Center for analysis is the Illinois A.C.T. test scores by major ethnic groups published in the second annual report of student achievement in Illinois issued in 1984. It is beyond the scope of this report to examine the validity, reliability, or acceptability of using standardized achievement tests to measure abilities of racial or ethnic minority students. Suffice it to say that these data are used primarily because they are the only source of data with information on Illinois students by ethnicity and family income.

C. A.C.T. SCORE ANALYSES

The A.C.T. test is taken by high school juniors and seniors who plan on applying to college. As such, the A.C.T. candidates are hardly representative of all students in Illinois. Rather, they are a select group of all high school students in the state. However, it is conceivable to analyze this limited data set to examine the effects of ethnicity and income.

(1) The Effect of Ethnicity

Mean test scores reported for English, mathematics, social studies, and natural science subtests and composite mean scores are examined across time for the years 1970-71, 1975-76, and 1982-83. The results seem to indicate that the highest college entrance achievement on the A.C.T. by Illinois students was obtained by students who were white or Asian. However, such a sweeping generalization obscures several trends in the test scores for Asian, black, and white Americans which are presented in Table 23.

Please see Table 23.

During the thirteen years from 1970-1983, black scores on all subtests were the lowest of all ethnic groups. Despite relatively stable achievement trends at the state level for all ethnic groups, the black mean scores on the mathematics subtest declined from 13.5 in 1970-71, to 10.7 in 1975-76, and reached 9.9 in 1982-83.

During the same time period, the mean scores for Asian students increased on all A.C.T. subtests bringing their performance close to that of white students who showed declining scores in English, social studies, and natural sciences. In 1975-76, Asian scores were on par with those of whites in mathematics (19.3 versus 19.1) but some outperformance appeared in 1982-83 with an Asian mean score on the math subtest of 20.3 versus 18.7 for the whites. Here, again, the lack of published standard deviations for each of these mean scores constitutes a major difficulty in further analysis or interpretation of this finding.

(2) The Effect of Income on Ethnicity

College preparedness as measured by A.C.T. mean scores are also reported by student-identified family income for each ethnic group. As was shown in the above table (see Table 23), student ethnicity is a major background variable in test score differences. The addition of family income information to the student ethnicity data brings to light differences both within and across ethnic groups.

An examination of A.C.T. test scores for Asian, black, and white Americans controlling for family income presents yet a different picture of the overall "success" of Asian students which is obscured in analyses at the aggregate level (see Table 24).

Please see Table 24.

For the sake of brevity, social studies and natural science scores, though published, have been omitted from Table 24 because the trends for social studies scores parallel those of the English subtest and the natural science scores follow the same general pattern as the mathematics subtest. Subtest and composite scores for Native Americans, Mexican Americans, and Puerto Ricans have also been omitted to focus maximum attention on the performance of Asian American students. However, scores for black and white American students are reported to provide comparisons. For a full set of subtest and composite scores for each of the six ethnic/racial groups, please refer to Appendix C of Student Achievement in Illinois: An Analysis of Student Progress issued in 1984.

As Table 24 indicates, family income has a consistent effect on A.C.T. scores across all ethnic groups and subtests for each test year. Within each ethnic group, low-income students have lower mean subtest and composite scores than the high-income students of the same ethnicity with the moderate-income students falling in between the two groups in mean scores. In other words, income and A.C.T. scores are positively correlated. As income increases, subtest mean scores and composite mean scores also increase.

An examination of within-ethnic group scores across time reveals a worrisome pattern for Asian students. While the within-ethnic group difference between high- and low-income mean subtest scores for white students exhibits relatively small variation over time, for Asian American students, the difference in average scores on the English subtest between the high- and low-income group was 2.21 points in 1970-71 (15.97-13.76=2.21), increases to 5.26 points in 1975-76, and reaches 7.77 for the final test period, 1982-83. Math subtest and composite scores show the same overall pattern. Thus, whereas overall Asian performance appears to have improved and seems to approximate that of white students between 1970 and 1983 (Table 23), there is a growing gap in the difference between performance of high- and low-income Asian students during the same time period (Table 24). For Asian students, not only is income directly related to A.C.T. performance, but it has had an increasing impact on differences in mean scores for students at different income levels. This means that over time, low-income Asian American students have more and more distance to make up in order to reach the same mean scores as those with high income. Juxtaposing this finding with the Census information presented earlier in this report on the poverty status of Asian Americans (Section II, part C), it can be surmised that the deleterious impact of income on A.C.T. scores is more pronounced for new immigrants than for earlier waves of immigrants or native-born Asian Americans.

(3) The Effect of Income Across Ethnic Groups

The preponderance of foreign-borns and new immigrants within the Asian American population means that the detrimental effects of low and even moderate incomes on A.C.T. will remain evident when the scores of Asian American students are compared as a group with those of white students. On the English subtest, low-income Asians consistently underperform low-income white students at all three test years (13.76 vs. 18.55, 13.65 vs. 17.27, and 12.16 vs. 17.42) with mean scores close to those of black students. On the same subtest, moderate-income Asians score between the black and white mean scores. Except for 1970-71, mathematics subtest scores are higher for low- and moderate-income Asian students than for whites or blacks at the same income level. Other than 1975-76, composite scores for low- and moderate-income Asians drop to place them in between the black and white means. Caution is warranted in the interpretation of these data because of the absence of standard deviations for each of the published means scores. It appears that the high achievement of Asian students on the A.C.T. may possibly represent the "success" of high-income Asian students, who are more likely to be American-born or children of earlier (pre-1970) immigrants.

D. OTHER FINDINGS: HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND

Besides the school enrollment, dropout, S.A.T., ACT, and English proficiency data presented earlier, notable difference exist between Asian and white American students in other areas as well. In a national longitudinal study called High School and Beyond sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, the investigators interviewed a national probability sample of over 30,000 sophomores and 28,000 seniors from the class of 1980 drawn from 1,015 high schools across the nation. About 400 Asian Americans were found among the sophomores selected for the study. The results show that Asian American students differ from other students in many respects (Peng, Owings, and Fetters, 1984). They are more likely to enroll in college preparatory (academic) programs than other students--47 percent of Asian American students, as compared to 37 percent of white and 29 percent of black. Asian American students also maintained a heavier course load (at least 50 percent more credits) than white American students over the entire four years of high school. They took more courses in foreign languages, high-level mathematics, and sciences. They generally spent more time on homework, and less time working for pay. Only about 24 percent of Asian American students worked 15 or more hours per week, as compared to 32 percent of white, and 30 percent of black American students. Furthermore, they are less likely to be absent from school. About 45 percent of Asian American students, as compared to 26 percent of white students, reported that during the fall semester of 1980, they were never absent from school for reasons other than illness.

Asian American students also had higher educational aspirations than other students. In the sophomore year, about 35 percent of Asian American students expected to receive a graduate school or professional school education, as compared to 18 percent of white- and 20 percent of black-American students.

With respect to monitoring of school work by mothers, no significant differences were found between Asian Americans and other ethnic groups. However, Asian American students reported significantly more monitoring of school work by fathers. This finding is relatively new in the area of education research and attests to the importance of the father's role in Asian child-rearing practices which has been neglected in previous studies.

VI. AMERICAN-BORN ASIAN CHILDREN AND AMERASIANS: IDENTITY CRISIS

Thus far, this report has discussed the educational needs of Asian Americans in Illinois without paying sufficient attention to related issues such as the psychological costs of high achievement or identity crises. A number of panelists at the forum on Educational Issues concerning Asian Americans in Illinois have emphasized that as Asian American school children overcome their language problems and improve their verbal skills, a greater part of their learning needs will shift from the cognitive realm to the affective realm. Learning to cope with failure, to place academic achievement in the proper perspective, to get along with fellow classmates, to be less harsh on oneself even as one aspires for something, and most of all, learning to accept one's hyphenated identity are among the problems identified as issues of concern by the educators and psychologists in the Asian American community. Of these, identity problems are serious for American-born Asians as well as mixed-race Amerasian children, especially children born of U.S. military personnel and Asian civilians.

For the American-born child, some of whom are able to speak only one language--English, the first-day in school can be a traumatic event, not only because of the unfamiliar environment, but also because of teasing by classmates. As one Asian American student who lives in Wilmette recalls (Chan, 1986:1): "I was in the first grade and this little boy said: `Can't you open your eyes any wider?' I was hurt."

Similarly, an Asian American parent recalled (Kim, 1983:49):

> Some years ago, my 5-year-old son came home from school, shortly after entering kindergarten in a predominantly White neighborhood, and asked: "What am I? Am I a Korean or an American?" Trying to be a good mother, I told him that he was a Korean American; he was born in the United States of Korean parents and had rich heritages from 2 cultures. This did not comfort my son, nor did he seem to feel enlightened by the knowledge of his bicultural background. Instead, he protested, "If I am Korean, why can't I speak Korean like you do? If I am an American, how come I don't look like the American kids in my class?" He paused for a moment and then delivered the final blow: "Besides, they call me Chinese!"

If they live outside of the Chinatown area, American-born Asian children quickly discover that by majority standard, their nose is too small or too flat, their hair too straight. Throughout puberty, these children remain troubled by their looks and their physical stature. Most are convinced that they are unattractive just because they look different. In young adulthood, the problem of who they are and where they belong can accentuate the pains of growing up.

In the classroom, teachers often assign them to talk about China, Japan, or Korea--despite their apparent ignorance about and disinterest in these countries. In social interactions, they are often referred to as "the little Chinese girl," or "that Filipino boy." Dennis Naka succinctly stated this observation at the forum on Educational Issues Concerning Asian Americans in Illinois:

> A second and third generation child may want to be one hundred percent American and may view himself as one hundred percent American, yet the majority society views him as Asian first and American second, while his parents may resent and be offended by his rejection of their traditional cultural patterns. A situation develops where the child wants to be more American, his parents want him to be less American, and the majority society tells him [that] he is something less than American.

In reaction to these not-too-subtle public misperceptions, the American-born child often shuns anything Asian. Some children go so far as to insist that the kitchen drapes be pulled so that neighbors will not see their parents use chopsticks and talk about the "curious" way they eat their meals. They themselves will eat no rice, and certainly no Asian food. One parent in Downers Grove recalled that, in a last ditch attempt to be "American," his grade-school son joined the Caucasian children in making fun of the "Fu Manchu" eyes of smaller and younger Chinese children. The use of such psychological defense mechanisms to cope with one's own feelings of insecurity about one's identity are not limited to children; they are common among adults as well. As Amy Iwasaki Mass, a Nisei clinical social worker explains it: "Identification with the aggressor makes us feel safer and stronger." She observed that some niseis (second-generation Japanese Americans) have shed their ethnic identity and have merged into the white mainstream (Oishi, 1985). "What is sacrificed is the individual's own self-acceptance. It places an exaggerated emphasis on surface qualities, such as a pleasant non-offensive manner, neat grooming and appearance, nice homes, nice cars and well behaved children."

There is increasing concern among Asian American educators and psychologists that the the younger generation of Asian American school children may have hidden emotional problems. First because in their extreme emphasis on educational achievement, Asian American parents have tended to neglect the emotional growth of their children; and second because no matter how hard they try to divest themselves of their original culture, the Asian American child remains different from the mainstream white American child--physically, socially, and psychologically. His self image conflicts with the way that others perceive him.

Besides the American-born child, there is another high-risk group of children who are now confused young adults experiencing intense identity crises. These are the mixed-race Amerasian children of U.S. military personnel and civilians stationed in

IndoChina and parts of Southeast Asia. Except for the Philippines which has had about 400 years of Spanish colonization and 50 years of U.S. governance, the major countries in Southeast Asia such as Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos, Taiwan, Korea, and Japan do not culturally value children of mixed marriages. Aside from the issue of illegitimacy, there is an underlying tone of racism.

Accurate estimates of the number of Amerasian children of U.S. military personnel stationed in Southeast Asia is difficult to obtain. The media has reported that in Vietnam, there are some 10,000 children fathered by American G.I.s and civilians during the War (Kaufman, 1986). A large majority of these children were left behind by fathers who returned to the United States.

Special arrangements were made by the United Nations in the summer of 1984 to facilitate the orderly departure of Amerasian children from Vietnam. Often arriving in this country with their mother, these chldren's hope of seeing their biological fathers turn into heart-breaking experiences when their fathers were not anxious to take them back or simply told them that they would have to live their own lives. It has been estimated that of the more than 3,000 Amerasian children who have come to the United States since 1975, fewer than 100 were officially acknowledged by their fathers when the U.S. government contacted the men before the youngster's arrival (Kaufman, 1986).

Forced to live in poverty with mothers who may only speak minimal English and who have to work long hours, these children may find themselves placed in schools at inappropriate grade levels, and may easily get into trouble ranging from drinking or drug problems, to anti-social behavior and suicide. In the rough neighborhoods where they live, these children come to believe that they have to be "tough" to survive.

The fact that they look Western but cannot speak a word of English heightens their identity crisis and makes them the object of ridicule in school. Living in poverty with mothers who are too busy working to attend to their needs, and finding acceptance neither by members of their ethnic cultures nor by their American fathers, these children and young adults subsist between two worlds--a tragedy waiting to happen.

VII. Suicide Statistics

To date, research on the mental health problems of Asian American youths has been extremely sparse. About the only national data source which contains a modicum of information on this subject has been published by Liu and Yu (1985b) in a review paper entitled, "Ethnicity, Mental Health, and the Urban Delivery System." Using data extracted from death certificates in all 50 states submitted to the National Center for Health Statistics, the researchers examined suicide rates for white, black, (Table 25) and Asian Americans (Table 26). They found that among Asian

Americans, Japanese youths aged 15-24 have the highest suicide rates.

Please see Table 25.

Please see Table 26.

Among males at ages 15-24 years, there were 14.09 Japanese male suicide deaths per 100,000 population--a rate that is second only to that of white Americans (21.91 per 100,000), followed by black Americans (12.56 per 100,000), Chinese Americans (8.07 per 100,000), and Filipino Americans (7.67 per 100,000). In contrast, Japanese and Chinese female suicide rates for the same age group (4.52 and 4.65 per 100,000, respectively) appear similar to that of white female rate (5.00 per 100,000).

The reason for these different rates across ethnic groups is not clear. What is clear is that Japanese males between the ages of 15-24 years appear to be most vulnerable to deaths by suicide, compared with the other two Asian subgroups. U.S. Census data indicate that the Japanese have the smallest percentage of foreign-born persons among all Asian Americans; they also have the largest proportion of third- and fourth-generation adults (called sanseis and yonseis, respectively) who are born in this country of English-speaking Japanese American parents. In terms of acculturation into the mainstrem society, these are the most acculturated minorities. However, as Dennis Naka, one of the speakers at the Forum on Educational Issues Concerning Asian Americans in Illinois, reiterated: "You may be as American as 'mom, apple pie, Chevrolet, and Coca Cola.' But reality is as close as the nearest mirror where the face staring back at you does not have blonde hair and blue eyes or in the nearest playground where Asian children experience ridicule and name calling and teasing." Could it be that in losing their Japaneseness after three or four generations, a sizable numbers of 15-24 year old Japanese Americans also could not accept themselves? Could it be that trying to be as white as possible has made them become much more prone to depression, anxiety, and self-hatred to such an extent that suicide seems to be the only solution to an unsolvable problem?

One notes with interest that the number of second- and third-generation U.S.-born Chinese with English-speaking parents is increasing to rival the Japanese American population. These American-born Chinese have also followed the footsteps of Japanese Americans in trying to be "whiter-than-white." And the young adults (15-24 years old) in this group now have the second highest suicide rates among Asian Americans. Obviously, this report has raised more questions than it has found answers regarding the psychosocial needs of Asian American students in Illinois.

VIII. SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

Dropout information, bilingual census results, and A.C.T. score reports present a mixed picture of the performance of Asian American students in the state of Illinois. While the dropout problem is comparatively small for Asian Americans compared with other students in the city of Chicago and their statewide aggregate A.C.T. scores place them near parity with white students, significant numbers of non-English background students at all grade levels are doing poorly on language tests.

From a research perspective, the available ISBE data sets are extremely difficult to use. Total numbers of Asian American students at each grade level was critical for each type of analysis which was considered in this report, but it was missing from the ISBE data sets. Despite this limitation, a review of national and statewide data yielded the following conclusions:

A. The Asian American Population

- Asian Americans are the fastest growing segment of the U. S. population. The Asian/Pacific Islander population increased 120 percent between 1970 and 1980 as compared with a 6.4 percent increase for white Americans, a 17.4 percent increase for black Americans, and a 60.8 percent increase for Hispanic Americans.
- The Asian/Pacific Islander population is comprised of a number of diverse groups. The six largest subgroups are: Chinese, Filipinos, Japanese, Asian Indian, Koreans, and Vietnamese.
- Statistics for all Asian Americans obscure and misrepresent the educational, employment, and income situation of smaller and newer Asian and Pacific Islander subgroups (e.g., Cambodians, Laotians, Hmongs, Samoans,

Guamanians, and Hawaiians) who are much worse off than the well established Asian American groups or majority Americans.

B. The Myth of the Asian American Model Minority

- Media images of Asian Americans as a "model minority" do not represent a true picture of their socioeconomic attainments and obscure several important facts:

1. Education

- Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, and Korean Americans equal or surpass majority Americans in median number of school years completed but the last three groups also exceed majority Americans in the percentage of the adult population with fewer than 5 years of education.

2. Occupation

- Japanese, Chinese, and Filipino Americans hold professional and technical jobs in larger proportion than majority Americans but they also exceed majority Americans in the percentages in the four lowest paying occupations (household workers, service workers, farm hands, and laborers).

- Large percentages of Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino American males and females with at least one year of college are employed in jobs that typically require less education than they have. They are educationally overqualified for their jobs.

- The proportion of the population characterized by a mismatch between education and occupation is higher for Asian Americans than for white or black Americans.

3. Income

- Family incomes for Asian Americans are bimodally distributed. That is, for most Asian American subgroups, larger percentages have incomes in the highest bracket and lowest bracket than majority Americans.

- The Bureau of the Census reported that 13.1 percent of all Asian/Pacific American had incomes below the poverty level compared with 9.4 percent of all white Americans.

- Larger percentages of foreign born Asian/Pacific American families, persons, and unrelated individuals had incomes below the poverty level than native born Asian/Pacific Americans.

4. Education and Income

- The Bureau of the Census Survey of Income and Education data show that Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino Americans earn less than majority males when controlling for occupational prestige, age, education, weeks worked, hours worked last week, and average income in the state of residence.

- The occupational return on education and the income return on occupation is lower for Asian Americans than for white Americans.

C. The Asian American School-Aged Population

1. Profile

- Illinois has the fourth largest population of Asian Americans (172,200). Only California, Hawaii, and New York have larger Asian American populations.

- Research on Asian American students and their educational needs in Illinois is practically nil.

- The Illinois State Board of Education data sets provide an important, though inadequate, source of information on the educational status of Asian Americans school students in the state.

2. National Enrollment Figures

- At the national level, Asian American elementary school enrollment is at parity with white Americans.

- At the national level, larger percentages of pre-elementary school aged Asian Americans are enrolled in school than white Americans.

3. Illinois Enrollment Figures

- Similar statistics for Illinois cannot be calculated from the data made available to the Pacific/Asian American Mental Health Research Center.

- However, for the state of Illinois, one can examine the type of schooling received by all those who go to school. In

Illinois, a larger percentage of the Asian American student population consists of college-level students, compared with other racial/ethnic groups.

4. Dropouts

- The magnitude of the high school dropout problem is less for Asian Americans than for other racial/ethnic groups.
- However, Hess and Lauber (1985) found that about 1 in 4 Asian American male students dropped out from the city of Chicago (Cook #299) high school graduating class of 1982 and about 1 in 6 Asian American females did not complete high school with their entering cohort.
- Like the majority population, the dropout problem among Asian Americans is more serious for male than female students.

5. National S.A.T. Results

- Nationwide, Asian American students have median S.A.T. verbal scores that are more than 100 points lower than white American students with the level of same family income.
- While the difference between Asian and white American S.A.T. median verbal scores decreases as family income increases, the white advantage never disappears.
- Poor and moderate-income Asian Americans have a distinct disadvantage in verbal communication as measured by S.A.T. verbal tests.
- Over time, the poorest Asian American students have lagged further behind on the S.A.T. verbal test.
- Controlling for parental income, median S.A.T. scores for Asian American students exceed the scores for white Americans by no more than 54 points.
- Over time, the Asian American "advantage" on the S.A.T. mathematics test scores has decreased.
- The Asian American disadvantage in median verbal scores is much more substantial than the "advantage" in mathematics aptitude as measured by S.A.T. subtest scores.
- Other researchers (Peng, Owings, and Fetters, 1984) found no significant difference between Asian and white American student performance on math and science tests, but did find

significantly lower Asian American scores on verbal skills tests of vocabulary, reading, and writing.

- Similar S.A.T. score analyses for students in Illinois cannot be calculated; A.C.T. test scores can be examined.

5. Illinois A.C.T. Results

- As a whole, Asian and white American students in Illinois outperformed other racial/ethnic groups on the A.C.T.
- Low-income Asian American students in Illinois had lower scores on the A.C.T. than high income Asian American students which suggests that income and A.C.T. scores are positively correlated.
- Over the three time periods surveyed, the difference between the scores of low-and high-income Asian American students in Illinois has increased.

6. Asian American High School Students' Expectations

- Results from a study called High School and Beyond (Peng, Owings, and Fetters, 1984) found that Asian American high school students differed from other students in the following respects: they were more likely to enroll in college preparatory classes; they maintained a heavier course load; they took more classes in foreign languages, high level mathematics, and sciences; they spent more time on homework and less time working for pay; they had fewer absences from school; they had higher educational aspirations; and more reported that their school work was monitored by their fathers.

7. ISBE Bilingual Census

- In 95 percent of the districts with the highest Asian American enrollment, more than half of all Asian students are identified by the Bilingual Census as having a non-English background.
- Furthermore, in the state of Illinois, about 5,300 non-English background Asian American students perform below average in English language proficiency. About 3,300 of the students who perform below average in English attend school in the city of Chicago (Cook #299).

8. Problems of American-born Asian and Amerasian Students

- Identity problems are serious for American-born Asian students and for mixed race children born to U. S. military personnel and Asian civilians.

- In addition, the extreme parental emphasis on educational achievement may create psychological problems for Asian American students.

9. Suicide Statistics

- Among Asian American youths aged 15-24, Japanese American males are most vulnerable to death by suicide, followed by Chinese Americans.

- Researchers need to examine whether the rapid and total acculturation and loss of ethnic identity has put Japanese American youths at risk for suicide.

IX. RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the aforementioned findings, several sets of recommendations are warranted. They may be classified into the following categories:

A. ISBE Data Collection Systems

Given the legislative mandate to maintain the following three data-collection systems in Illinois: (1) the Public School Fall Enrollment and Housing Report; (2) the End-of-Year Report; and (3) the Bilingual Census, it would be in the best interest of the state to improve the quantity and quality of the information that are obtained routinely from these datasets.

First, instead of the global "Asian/Pacific Islander" label currently used in the first two data-collection systems, the following 6 largest groups of Asian/Pacific Americans should be identified separately: Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Koreans, Vietnamese, and Asian Indians. A residual category, called "Other Asian/Pacific Islander" should provide sufficient space for write-in identification, such as "Cambodian, Thai, Laotian, Hmong, and other," as was done in the 1980 Census.

Since the state of Illinois is required to print a new set of questionnaires every year for these different data-collection systems, the recommended changes can be made easily by re-wording the ethnicity question on the present form of the End-of-Year and the Public School Fall Enrollment and Housing Report questionnaires. The cost of printing this added question on ethncity is negligible. The principal cost--which is insignificant--comes in the coding of the six Asian subgroups named specifically and of other groups that may be identified separately in the "Other" category. Thus, the cost involved in making this change on the data-collection system is minimal compared to the benefits that can be gained from the additional information on ethnicty.

As shown in this report, subgroups within the Asian American community are growing at different rates; they have divergent socioeconomic status, and do not have identical educational needs. Some groups (such as the Asian Indians and the Filipinos) have historically used English as a medium of instruction, while other groups (such as the Thais and the Hmongs) have an entirely different writing system or are pre-literate. Some groups (such as the Japanese and Chinese) have been in the United States for three or four generatons, others (such as the Cambodians and Laotians) came only as recently as 1975. It is impossible for the state to plan for or to implement any program addressing the educational needs of Asian Americans without prior knowledge of the varying needs of these different Asian subgroups. Precise estimates on dropouts, suspensions, and expulsions, in particular, are useful in planning for remedial measures (such as counseling, vocational schools, special education or bilingual education). Yet, it is precisely this set of information which is not collected by ethnicity. Even on the Bilingual Census, knowledge of the student's ethnic background would have furthered analysis of this data set because it would have provided valuable information on the variation in language retention across different ethnic groups--information needed to plan for bilingual education, counseling programs, and special education.

Second, throughout this report, one notes the absence of Asian American certified teachers from the data collected by the Illinois State Board of Education. Either there are extremely few certified Asian American school teachers (as Asian American community leaders reported on the community forum), or their numbers are not well documented because the present design of the state data-collection systems does not allow for the identification of these personnel by ethnicity. It is curious that non-certified new hires (for example, cooks, teachers' aides, security guards) are identifiable by ethnicity in the Public School Fall Enrollment and Housing Report beginning 1985, but certified staff--old or new--are not identifiable by ethnicity. This oversight has meant a loss of valuable information that could have helped in the policy decisions affecting Asian American education in Illinois.

Therefore, it is recommended that modifications be made in the present Illinois State Board of Education data-collection system to allow for the identification of subgroups of Asian American students and certified teachers, both old and new hires.

B. Research and Data

Mere collection of data by the Illinois State Board of Education would serve no purpose if these data are not analyzed after they have been collected. It is, therefore, recommended that the state identify a research agency to be the repository for state-collected data such as the Public School Fall Enrollment and Housing Report, the End-of-Year Report, and the Public School Bilingual Census. This practice has been instituted for the U.S. Census tapes, for example, whereby a few key research centers and universities in the country are provided with the census data tapes for research and analysis purposes.

Furthermore, it is recommended that the state issues contracts every year to have portions of the ISBE data tapes analyzed and published in the form of special reports or journal articles.

Aside from the ISBE data-collection systems, there should be other types of data collected for research purposes to address critical issues on Asian American education. At least 10 research projects should be funded for any fiscal year. These projects should be supported by state-funded grants and contracts. Research grants are to be obtained on a competitive basis based on peer review, and divided into two categories: (1) under 50,000 dollars, and (2) more than 50,000 dollars. Contracts, on the other hand, are to be determined by the funding agency itself--both in terms of amount and content--as the need arises. Both grants and contracts should encourage two types of research: cross-sectional and longitudinal follow-up studies.

To be funded, the proposed studies should have a cross-cultural perspective for only then can differences within and between Asian American subgroups and the white majority groups be understood better. If possible, collaborative research should also be encouraged between investigators in Illinois and those in the Asian countries to provide a three-way comparison between Asian students in Asia, Asian American students, and white American students. Such studies can clarify numerous issues on cultural transmission and environmental factors in child-rearing practices and learning processes.

Among the topics worthy of serious investigation are: (1) the role of parents (especially that of the father) in Asian and Asian American education; (2) socio-emotional development of Asian American children; (3) identity problems of Asian Americans; (4) adjustment problems of new refugee school children; (5) differences in socialization patterns between Asian, Asian-American, and non-Asian school children; (6) ways of improving the communication skills of Asian Americans; (7) continuing education for immigrant parents of Asian American students; (8) substance use and abuse among Asian Americans; (9) depression and anxiety among Asian and Asian American children; (10) longitudinal study of the impact of schooling on Asian Americans compared to other groups; (11) the relationship between parental mental health and Asian American children's achievement in school; (12) secondary analysis of ISBE data tapes; (13) dropout trends in Illinois compared with those reported in Asian countries; (14) training and certification needs of Asian/Pacific American education specialists; (15) hiring trends of certified and non-certified staff in Illinois.

C. Training and Certification of Teachers

There exist at present a critical lack of Asian American school teachers, particularly bilingual teachers and administrators, who can assist in the adjustment and schooling of new immigrant children. Although large numbers of Asian

Americans are professionals, few of those trained in the area of education are able to obtain certification or supplementary training to enable them to receive certification. Therefore, it is recommended that an office should be created within the Illinois State Board of Education to provide the necessary information for obtaining state certification and to oversee the training programs to be provided by the state for the purpose of increasing the certification eligibility of Asian American teachers and bilingual instructors so as to serve the Asian immigrant chilren. This need is specially critical for Cambodian, Laotian, and Hmong refugees for whom extremely few native-born American school teachers are prepared to instruct. In the short run, it is much more cost-effective to train native-speaking Cambodian, Laotian, and Hmong college graduates and professionals to become American school teachers than to train U.S.-born English-speaking educators to speak Cambodian, Laotian, or Hmong languages in order to serve the needs of these special populations.

D. Cultural Awareness Programs

To compensate for the general lack of knowledge about the culture and values of new immigrants and refugees, particularly by those who must educate the newcomer students, it is recommended that the Illinois State Board of Education sponsor several cultural awareness workshops in different parts of the state. These workshops should be targeted for an audience which consists of both Asian and non-Asian school teachers, teacher aides, principals, superintendents, counselors, and other school personnel.

It is further recommended that a Cultural Awareness Task Force of Asian American expert consultants should be created, as was done in California in the late 1970s when the state found itself with a huge influx of refugees whose values and cultures were not understood by school teachers. Day-long Cultural Awareness Workshops should be held on a regular basis, and built into the school programs so that all school teachers, administrators, and related personnel will have time to attend these workshops.

E. Establish a Talent Bank of Asian American Experts

In order to have a pool of Asian American experts on hand to consult on a variety of educational problems, it is recommended that the Illinois State Board of Education maintain a mailing list of Asian American education experts. A newsletter can be established to allow these Asian American educators to communicate with school teachers in different parts of the state.

F. Fellowships for Teacher Training

To encourage both the certification of new Asian American school teachers and re-training of the existing pool of educators to serve better the needs of Asian/Pacific Americans, it is recommended that the Illinois State Board of Education establish two types of Fellowships. The first, called the Immigrant or Refugee Certification Fellowship, is to provide a modest stipend for Asian American immigrant or refugee educators to receive the necessary training to qualify for certification. Such stipends are needed to release the new immigrant or refugee from the insecurities of day-to-day living and to concentrate on preparing for certification. It is suggested that such stipends be given on a six-month, renewable basis.

The second type of fellowship, called the Cultural Training Fellowship, is to be given on a three-month renewable basis, to enable both Asian and non-Asian educators to buy some release time from their teaching duties to attend any university in the United States which offers the necessary courses or workshops to broaden their knowledge of Asian cultures and society. Such fellowships are to be awarded four times a year to give the school teachers the added flexibility of choosing the best time to take a leave of absence from work, although for practical purposes summertime may be the best time.

G. Participation in Decision-making

Even though Asian Americans are beginning to make their mark in an advisory capacity at various levels of the Illinois government, they remain to be employed in active policy-making positions. It is, therefore, recommended that affirmative actions be established for Asian/Pacific Americans to enable them to participate in the state's decision-making processes, especially in the education of Asian Americans.

H. Counselling Services for Asian Americans

Counselling services within the educational system perform a preventive function by averting the occurrence of potential crisis situations or by minimizing their impact after they have occurred. The overemphasis on education by Asian American parents was cited by a number of experts (such as Dr. Tong-He Koh and Sung Ok Kim at the forum on Educational Issues Concering Asian Americans in Illinois) as a real source of stress for Asian American children. How the student cope with these stresses is not at all clear. But if the suicide statistics are in any way informative, they suggest that in some ethnic groups, the problems might have exceeded crisis proportions and been resolved by means of suicide. It is recommended that counselling services be established to allow Asian American students to have a scheduled appointment on a routine basis with the school psychologist or clinical social worker. Such scheduled appointments not only acquaint the unfamiliar Asian students with the concept of counselling, but it also helps to minimize the stigma of seeking help.

I. Recruitment of Clinical Personnel to Serve Asian Americans

It appears that there has been a dire shortage of clinical psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers who can serve Asian American students. In order to provide adequate counselling services to this population, it is recommended that the Illinois State Board of Education takes the initiative to implement an active recruitment, retention, and retraining programs for clinical workers in psychiatry, psychology, counseling, and social work, by establishing a Clinical Fellowship Program on a 12-month, renewable basis, at the graduate school level in major universities. Such fellowships may be given competitively only for a lifetime maximum of 3 years per applicant, with a prior written agreement for payback services of 2 years in the Illinois school system for every year of fellowship received or a payment of the amount of the fellowship as if it were a loan.

J. Improving the Verbal Skills of Asian Americans

Given the knowledge that Asian Americans consistently show a lack of verbal skills in many respects, it is recommended that both Asian American community organizations and the school system should devise ways in which to encourage Asian American grade school and high-school students to acquire the necessary skills in public speaking. In particular, public speaking contests, poem-reading sessions, drama and debate should be encouraged by private Asian American groups and foundations as a way to provide both native and foreign-born Asian Americans with an opportunity to compete among themselves without feeling intimidated or self-conscious. Within the school system, similar contests should be held, and within each age or grade category, at least one Asian American candidate should be sought actively for participation.

In addition, it is recommended that more remedial courses with flexible hours should be provided for students and parents of students with limited English proficiency (LEP). At the grade-school level, special after-school courses in English composition should be offered to LEP students who may wish to stay in school longer rather than return to an empty house because both parents are still at work.

K. Bilingual Education

The large influx of new immigrants and refugees necessitates a careful monitoring of the bilingual educational policy within the state. It is recommended that provisions be made for compiling a comprehensive, sequential Asian American curriculum and materials in all subjects. In order to do this, the state will need to establish and adequately staff Asian American curriculum development centers to facilitate the prompt development of bilingual materials.

L. Multicultural Education

As the U.S. society becomes more pluralistic, the need for multi-cultural education arises. Not only must teachers become more informed of other cultures and value systems, but students--both Asians and non Asian Americans alike--will need to receive a multicultural education. It is, therefore, recommended that the Illinois State Board of Education take the leadership in the development of multicultural education models and curriculum. ISBE should be specifically mandated to examine materials developed by bilingual/bicultural programs, both in and out of the state, to determine their value for multicultural use.

X. POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Between 1970 and 1980, changes in the population distribution for the nation as a whole has had its impact on many of the previous industrial cities of the northeast and the midwest as older Americans migrate to the sunbelt states. Yet, despite the economic recession brought about by the declining population growth for the state of Illinois in general, and the city of Chicago in particular, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of Asian Americans who come here to establish themselves and to educate their children. Inspite of obvious linguistic handicaps and employment barriers, most new immigrants and refugees appear to be highly motivated to learn and to excel in a wide variety of undertakings.

Governor James Thompson's recent trips to East Asia signal a new era in Illinois' relationship with the world, which came about as a result of a growing awareness that the United States can no longer continue to separate economic from political issues, or divorce educational from economic planning. In the decade of the 90s, the superpowers will rise and fall not so much as a result of military might--though that will remain an important factor--but as a consequence of economic growth or stagnation.

In order to enhance its future, Illinois needs to enter the international economic arena, attract Asian businesses and factories, and open new markets in Asia. What better investment can the state make than to develope one of its resources--that is, the growing numbers of young Asian Americans who can play important roles in international trade and economic development for Illinois, not to mention scientific research or technological inventions?

In 10 years, an Asian American student who is now in Grade 6 will be a college graduate eager to face the world and launch his/her career. By introducing major reforms in the Illinois school system at present, the state can capitalize on one of its most valuable resources for the future--human capital. In this context, the recommendations in this report are but a small investment toward the future of Illinois.

Table 1. DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY INCOME BY SELECTED ETHNIC GROUP, UNITED STATES: 1980 CENSUS

Ethnic Group	Total		Family Income				
	Number	Percent	$7499	$7500-$14,999	$15,000-$24,999	$25,000-$34,999	$35,000+
White	(13,495)	100.0	6.5	19.7	30.5	23.0	20.2
Chinese	(9,349)	100.0	11.9	18.3	24.3	20.0	25.4
Japanese	(8,385)	100.0	6.0	12.7	24.3	23.8	33.3
Filipino	(8,381)	100.0	7.6	18.2	27.6	21.9	24.7
Korean	(3,264)	100.0	12.7	21.0	27.6	18.3	20.5
Asian Indian	(4,852)	100.0	8.8	14.3	25.8	24.3	26.8
Vietnamese	(1,983)	100.0	27.4	23.4	28.5	13.0	7.7
Hawaiian	(1,804)	100.0	15.0	23.0	27.0	19.0	16.0

Source: Computed by the authors from the 1980 Census Public Use Microdata A (5%) sample, unweighted data.

Table 2. PERSONS[a] BELOW POVERTY LEVEL IN 1979
FOR SELECTED RACIAL GROUPS: UNITED STATES, 1980

Selected Racial Groups	Total[b]	1979 Income Below Poverty Number	 Per
United States, Total	220,845,766	27,392,580	12
Female	113,907,899	15,756,126	13
White, Total	184,466,900	17,331,671	9
Female	94,757,233	10,018,588	10
Black, Total	25,622,675	7,648,604	29
Female	13,695,793	4,452,271	32
Asian/Pacific Islander, Total	3,643,966	475,677	13
Female	1,895,390	244,395	12

Source: Bureau of the Census, 1980 Census of Population, Volume 1, Chapter D, Detailed Population Characteristics, Part 1. United Stat Table 304.

[a] Data are estimates based on a sample.

[b] Excludes inmates of institutions, persons in military group quarter and in college dormitories, and unrelated individuals under 15 years

Table 3. INCOME IN 1979 BELOW POVERTY LEVEL BY NATIVITY, YEAR OF IMMIGRATION AND COUNTRY OF BIRTH: 1980 CENSUS[a]

Nativity, Year of Immigration and Country of Birth	Families		Unrelated Individuals		Persons	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
United States, total	5,760,215	9.6	8,860,582	25.1	27,392,580	12.4
Native born	5,143,326	9.4	6,207,146	24.7	25,250,116	12.2
Foreign born, immigrated 1970-80	260,256	20.7	281,641	40.7	1,253,885	23.0
Europe	18,698	10.1	26,208	30.1	90,560	12.4
Asia	73,993	19.2	85,379	42.8	368,425	21.4
China	7,160	17.8	5,681	38.8	25,644	19.1
India	3,176	6.7	3,637	25.2	12,914	8.3
Korea	7,501	15.4	5,137	39.2	31,446	13.1
Philippines	3,848	6.2	6,440	22.8	21,258	6.8
Vietnam, 1975-80	15,163	38.1	10,249	52.9	84,267	41.0
Vietnam, 1970-74	427	19.1	392	28.7	2,027	12.4
North and Central America	124,932	25.1	106,370	42.7	574,101	27.0
Canada	2,141	8.4	5,384	30.6	13,960	11.4
Cuba	8,975	20.5	7,107	50.3	34,078	21.0
Dominican Republic	8,757	36.1	3,544	42.7	30,920	32.5
Haiti	4,017	25.6	3,542	45.0	15,105	25.7
Jamaica	4,193	15.1	4,513	32.5	18,394	16.3
Mexico	81,370	28.2	61,973	44.6	388,332	30.9
South America	13,671	18.4	16,195	39.8	60,384	19.5
Africa	7,104	21.1	13,356	45.7	32,459	26.1
Foreign born, immigrated before 1970	266,633	8.7	371,795	24.3	888,579	10.7

Source: Bureau of the Census, *1980 Census of Population, Detailed Population Characteristics, United States Summary, Section A: United States*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

[a] Data are estimates based on a sample.

Table 4. ADJUSTED[a] MEAN EARNINGS FOR THOSE WITH EARNINGS

Ethnic Group by Sex	Original means			Earnings ratios for adjusted means (group/majority males)		
	1959	1969	1975	1959	1969	1975
Male						
Japanese American	$5142	$9159	$12615	.84	.91	.88*
Chinese American	4771	8001	10339	.83	.81	.77
Pilipino American	3603	6852	11366	.69	.82	1.04
Majority	5369	9150	11427	1.00	1.00	1.00
Females						
Japanese American	$2550	$4618	$5881	.54	.58	.58
Chinese American	2639	4366	6759	.59	.58	.70
Pilipino American	2268	4499	6784	.53	.55	.59
Majority	2686	4072	5122	.57	.54	.57

Source: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1978)

[a] The adjusted technique substitutes the majority male mean values in a regression equation for the following variables: occupational prestige, age, education, weeks worked, hours worked last week, and the average income in the state of residence. See text and appendix B for further details on the method used. Since these adjusted means are hypothetical for a single person, they have no underlying distribution. Therefore, standard tests of significance are not appropriate.

*This can be interpreted as follows: "In 1975, Japanese American males with the same characteristics as majority males (in terms of occupational prestige, age, education, weeks worked, hours worked last week, and state of residence) could be expected to earn 88 percent of the amount that majority males earned."

Table 5. COLLEGE OVERQUALIFICATION FOR ASIAN AMERICANS: UNITED STATES, 1976

Ethnic Group by Sex	Social indicator values	
	Raw measure[a]	Ratios of raw measures to the majority male population)
Male		
Japanese American	49.4*	1.10**
Chinese American	51.3*	1.15
Pilipino American	56.2*	1.26
Majority	44.7	1.00
Female		
Japanese American	41.1*	.92
Chinese American	51.2*	1.14
Pilipino American	39.6	.89
Majority	45.4	1.00

Source: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1978)

[a] The percent of persons with at least one year of college who are employed in occupations which typically require less education than they have.

*The difference between this value and the majority benchmark is statistically significant at the 0.10 level.

**This can be interpreted as follows: "In 1976 the college overqualification rate for Japanese American males was 10 percent higher than (or 1.10 times) the rate for majority males."

Table 6. EARNINGS DIFFERENTIAL FOR COLLEGE-EDUCATED PERSONS

Ethnic Group by Sex	Social Indicator Values					
	Raw Measures[a]			Ratios of raw measures to the majority male population		
	1959	1969	1975	1959	1969	1975
Male						
Japanese American	$5250	$10045	$14253	.77	.94	.94*
Chinese American	5589	9068	12790	.82	.85	.84
Pilipino American	3713	7793	13091	.54	.73	.86
Majority	6833	10651	15165	1.00	1.00	1.00
Female						
Japanese American	$1999	$2171	$8383	.29	.20	.55
Chinese American	487	1875	6421	.07	.18	.42
Pilipino American	1667	3875	9038	.24	.36	.60
Majority	1739	1943	8106	.25	.18	.53

Source: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1978)

[a] Median earnings of those with four or more years of college who had some earnings during the year. This indicator is based on medians and therefore standard techniques for estimating sampling error do not apply.

*This can be interpreted as follows: "In 1975 Japanese American males with four or more years of college earned 94 percent of the average for majority males with the same educational attainment."

Table 7. ASIAN POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1980 AND 1970

	Number[a]		Percent	
United States	1980	1970	1980	1970
Total Asian Population	3,466,421	1,426,148	100.0	100.0
Chinese	812,178	431,583	23.4	30.3
Pilipino	781,894	336,731	22.6	23.6
Japanese	716,331	588,324	20.7	41.3
Asian Indian	387,223	NA	11.2	....
Korean[b]	357,393	69,510	10.3	4.9
Vietnamese	245,025	NA	7.1	....
Other Asians	166,377	NA	4.8	....
Laotian	47,683	NA	1.4	....
Thai	45,279	NA	1.3	....
Cambodian	16,044	NA	0.5	....
Pakistani	15,792	NA	0.5	....
Indonesian	9,618	NA	0.3	....
Hmong	5,204	NA	0.2	....
All other	26,757	NA	0.8	....

Source: Bureau of the Census (1983c)

[a] Data based on sample.

[b] the 1970 data on the Korean population excluded the State of Alaska.

Table 8. PERCENT FOREIGN BORN IN ASIAN AMERICAN POPULATION: 1980 CENSUS AND ESTIMATES FOR SEPTEMBER 30, 1985

	April 1, 1980, Census				Estimates for Sept. 30, 1985			
Rank	Ethnic group	Number	Percent	Percent foreign-born of group	Ethnic group	Number	Percent	Percent increase in number April 1, 1980 Sept.30, 1985
	Total	3,466,421	100.0	--	Total	5,147,900	100.0	48.5
1	Chinese	812,178	23.4	63.3	Chinese	1,079,400	21.0	32.9
2	Filipino	781,894	22.6	66.3	Filipino	1,051,600	20.4	34.5
3	Japanese	716,331	20.7	28.4	Japanese	766,300	14.9	7.0
4	Asian Indian	387,223	11.2	70.4	Vietnamese	634,200	12.3	158.8
5	Korean	357,393	10.3	81.8	Korean	542,400	10.5	51.8
6	Vietnamese	245,025	7.1	90.5	Asian Indian	525,600	10.2	35.7
	Other Asian	166,377	4.8	--	Laotian	218,400	4.2	358.0
	Laotian	47,683	1.4	--	Cambodian	160,800	3.1	902.2
	Thai	45,279	1.3	--	All other	169,200	3.3	64.8
	Cambodian	16,044	0.5	--				
	Pakistani	15,792	0.5	--				
	Indonesian	9,618	0.3	--				
	Hmong	5,204	0.2	--				
	All other[a]	26,757	0.8	--				

Percent of total U.S. population (226,545,805)
=1.5 percent

Percent of total U.S. population (239,447,000)
=2.1 percent

Sources: Bureau of the Census, 1980 Census of Population, PC80-S1-12, Asian and Pacific Islander Population by State, December 1983, Table B. 1985. Estimates by Gardner, Robey, and Smith (1985).

[a] Includes Bangladeshi, Bhutanese, Borean, Burmese, Celebesian, Cernan, Indochinese, Iwo-Jiman, Javanese, Malayan, Maldivian, Nepali, Okinawan, Sikkimese, Singaporean, Sri Lankan, and Asian not specified (e.g., "Asian").

Table 9. TOTAL NUMBER OF PERSONS IN THE SIX ILLINOIS COUNTIES WITH THE LARGEST PACIFIC/ASIAN AMERICAN POPULATION[a]

County	Japanese	Chinese	Filipino	Korean	Asian Indian	Vietnamese	Hawaiian
Six counties	16,416	25,268	30,918	20,951	32,194	4,272	562
Champaign	614	1,135	---	558	466	---	---
Cook	14,062	19,823	22,695	17,323	23,062	3,592	562
Du Page	1,085	3,276	4,989	2,183	6,381	680	---
Kane	---	---	---	---	510	---	---
Lake	655	1,034	2,127	887	1,012	---	---
Will	---	---	1,107	---	---	---	---

Source: Bureau of the Census (1982)

[a] The number of Pacific Islanders in the six counties are extremely small so that only data for Hawaiians are available.

Table 10. Number of Asian/Pacific Islanders in Illinois, by Age Group: 1980

Age Groups	Japanese	Chinese	Filipino	Korean	Asian Indian	Vietnamese	Hawaiian	Guamanian	Samoan
Total, All Ages	18,571	28,597	43,857	23,989	35,749	7.034	1,063	606	187
Under 5 years	1,035	2,309	3,812	2,784	4,876	720	58	43	14
5 to 9 years	1,071	2,093	4,506	2,976	3,602	892	77	54	14
10 to 14 years	946	2,005	3,846	2,239	2,351	817	66	64	14
15 to 19 years	1,281	2,268	2,650	1,640	1,435	888	108	73	17

Source: Bureau of the Census (1982)

Table 11. TOTAL PACIFIC/ASIAN AMERICAN SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN IN THE SIX COUNTIES WITH LARGEST ASIAN/PACIFIC ISLANDER[a] POPULATION, BY 5-YEAR AGE CATEGORIES

Age, by County	Japanese	Chinese	Filipino	Korean	Asian Indian	Vietnamese	Hawaiian
Champaign							
Under 5 years	31	67	---	67	41	---	---
5 to 9 years	24	53	---	32	26	---	---
10 to 14 years	29	36	---	22	16	---	---
15 to 19 years	94	132	---	56	38	---	---
Cook							
Under 5 years	780	1,393	2,740	1,920	3,123	363	26
5 to 9 years	808	1,323	3,089	1,986	2,170	460	32
10 to 14 years	718	1,423	2,734	1,622	1,377	379	29
15 to 19 years	823	1,647	1,987	1,186	909	454	43
DuPage							
Under 5 years	95	440	513	270	1,011	71	---
5 to 9 years	86	340	722	347	746	76	---
10 to 14 years	59	238	528	233	489	88	
15 to 19 years	68	145	269	131	204	82	---
Kane							
Under 5 yeras	---	---	---	---	63	---	---
5 to 9 years	---	---	---	---	55	---	---
10 to 14 years	---	---	---	---	43	---	---
15 to 19 years	---	---	---	---	28	---	---
Lake							
Under 5 years	37	95	223	98	139	---	---
5 to 9 years	39	93	221	135	114	---	---
10 to 14 years	39	83	151	89	89	---	---
15 to 19 years	49	73	122	63	41	---	---
Will							
Under 5 yeras	---	---	103	---	98	---	---
5 to 9 years	---	---	162	---	107	---	---
10 to 14 years	---	---	143	---	70	---	---
Under 5 years	---	---	57	---	30	---	---

Source: Bureau of the Census (1982)

[a] The number of Pacific Islanders in the six counties are extremely small so that only data for Hawaiians are available.

Table 12. PERCENTAGES ENROLLED IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES, BY AGE AND ETHNICITY: UNITED STATES, 1980

Ethnic Group	AGE							
	3-4 years	5-6 years	7-15 years	16-17 years	18-19 years	20-21 years	22-24 years	25-34 years
Chinese	47.9	91.4	98.4	96.0	83.9	74.0	50.7	21.9
Pilipino	27.6	89.1	98.8	92.8	62.7	38.3	20.2	9.6
Asian Indian	51.4	92.3	98.2	92.2	72.0	54.3	39.2	14.9
Japanese	58.0	94.6	99.1	96.2	77.0	61.6	38.9	14.5
Korean	42.1	88.4	98.3	94.9	77.7	54.8	30.5	13.2
Vietnamese	29.4	83.6	96.5	90.2	66.6	47.5	37.8	22.4
White	32.0	86.1	98.8	89.0	52.8	33.3	17.4	8.5

Source: Bureau of the Census (1983a)

Table 13. ETHNIC GROUPS BY AGE: UNITED STATES, 1980

Ethnic Group	Total		Age in years					
	Number	Percent	Less than 5 years	5-19	20-44	45-64	Over 64	Median
White	189,035,012	100.0	6.7	23.6	36.9	20.6	12.1	30.0*
Asian/Pacific	3,726,440	100.0	8.6	24.9	44.8	15.7	5.9	28.4*
Chinese	812,178	100.0	7.1	22.2	45.7	18.1	6.9	29.6
Pilipino	718,894	100.0	8.9	26.3	44.1	13.5	7.2	28.5
Asian Indian	387,223	100.0	11.1	21.0	49.9	10.0	8.0	30.1
Japanese	716,331	100.0	5.3	18.9	41.5	27.0	7.3	33.5
Korean	357,393	100.0	10.6	29.3	47.2	10.5	2.4	26.0
Vietnamese	245,025	100.0	10.1	36.5	43.6	8.0	1.8	21.5
Guamanian	30,695	100.0	9.1	32.6	46.2	9.7	2.4	22.6
Hawaiian	172,346	100.0	9.9	30.8	39.0	14.7	5.6	24.2
Samoan	39,520	100.0	14.1	37.7	37.8	8.3	2.1	19.2
Other	183,835	100.0	13.1	29.6	50.2	6.1	1.0	23.2

Source: Bureau of the Census (1983a)

*Totals do not add up exactly to 100 percent due to rounding errors.

Table 14. PERCENT OF ASIAN AMERICANS (AA) 3 YEARS AND OLDER ENROLLED IN SCHOOL WHO RESIDE IN THOSE DISTRICTS WITH THE HIGHEST AA ENROLLMENT IN ILLINOIS: 1980

COUNTY/District Number	Nursery School	Kindergarten & Elementary School	High School	College
CHAMPAIGN #4	1.11	10.84	9.96	78.10
#116	3.15	12.99	2.17	81.69
COOK #15	8.43	59.53	10.96	21.08
#21	12.95	50.36	7.91	28.78
#34	14.75	44.60	14.39	26.26
#54	8.70	61.23	16.71	13.36
#59	8.04	52.75	22.35	16.86
#62	9.16	55.98	15.27	19.59
#63	7.24	57.90	14.11	20.75
#65	3.67	36.53	6.01	53.79
#68	8.79	48.33	13.39	29.50
#69	7.32	50.30	14.63	27.74
#73-5	9.75	69.68	7.22	13.36
#74	6.74	62.41	19.15	11.70
#83	18.42	39.47	0.00	42.11
#97	3.66	45.95	22.72	27.68
#207	6.50	57.17	14.82	21.52
#211	8.59	61.61	14.08	15.73
#214	11.26	55.91	17.91	14.93
#219	7.92	53.23	14.99	23.86
#299	3.74	43.32	16.08	36.86
DEKALB #428	2.63	6.73	2.92	87.72
DUPAGE #4	1.77	68.14	18.29	11.80
#16	5.99	50.00	10.78	33.23
#58	10.52	61.22	13.50	14.76
#61	13.19	65.17	14.51	7.12
#86	8.30	70.10	12.59	9.01
#87	6.96	52.06	12.90	28.08
#99	10.11	60.07	15.84	13.98
#200	3.29	48.25	10.53	37.94
#203	15.09	58.62	4.53	21.77
#205	8.14	50.13	7.09	34.65
KANE #46	8.41	49.87	13.12	28.60
#129	9.68	51.61	0.00	38.71
LAKE #60	6.54	64.49	11.76	17.21
#64	2.67	77.01	9.63	10.70
PEORIA #150	10.00	58.80	12.00	19.20
WILL #365U	9.52	59.26	8.99	22.22
WINNEBAGO #205	11.05	58.14	11.82	18.99

Source: Bureau of the Census (1982)

Table 15. TOTAL VOCATIONAL AND GENERAL HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS FOR COOK COUNTY #299--CITY OF CHICAGO, BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1980-83

		Ethnic Group			
Year	White	Black	Native American	Asian American	Hispanic
1980	28,690	77,399	146	2,866	17,463
1981	25,189	72,766	188	3,080	17,970
1982	22,456	69,097	152	3,243	18,333
1983	21,216	67,770	172	3,193	19,206

Source: Chicago Public School Racial/Ethnic Surveys conducted in October 1980, 1981, 1982, and 1983.

TABLE 16. DROPOUTS FOR COOK COUNTY #299--CITY OF CHICAGO, BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1980-84

		Ethnic Group				
Year	Total	White	Black	Native American	Asian American	Hispanic
1980-81	13,244	3,207	7,476	18	134	2,409
1981-82	11,460	2,721	6,227	14	142	2,356
1982-83	9,065	2,254	4,875	45	93	1,798
1983-84	9,320	2,211	4,854	11	125	2,119

Source: Illinois State Board of Education, unpublished data calculated by the authors.

TABLE 17. PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUTS AMONG EACH RACIAL/ETHNIC GROUP[a] IN COOK COUNTY #299--CITY OF CHICAGO, 1980-84

Year	Ethnic Group				
	White	Black	Native American	Asian American	Hispanic
1980-81	11.17	9.65	12.33	4.68	13.78
1981-82	10.80	8.56	7.45	4.61	13.11
1982-83	10.04	7.06	29.61	2.87	9.81
1983-84	10.42	7.16	6.40	3.91	11.03

Source: Illinois State Board of Education, unpublished data calculated by the authors.

[a] The denominator is obtained from the Chicago Public Schools' Racial/Ethnic Survey (1980-84). The numerator is calculated from unpublished data of the End-of-Year Reports (1980-84) supplied by the Illinois State Board of Education.

TABLE 18. PERCENT OF EACH RACIAL/ETHNIC GROUP AMONG ALL HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUTS COOK COUNTY #299--CITY OF CHICAGO: 1980-84

Year	Total		White	Black	Native American	Asian American	Hispanic
	Number	Percent					
1980-81	13,244	100.0	24.21	56.45	.14	1.01	18.19
1981-82	11,460	100.0	23.74	54.34	.12	1.24	20.56
1982-83	9,065	100.0	24.86	53.78	.50	1.03	19.83
1983-84	9,320	100.0	23.72	52.08	.12	1.34	22.74

Source: Illinois State Board of Education, unpublished data calculated by the authors.

Table 19. S.A.T. TEST RESULTS BY ETHNICITY AND INCOME: UNITED STATES, 1980-1981

Annual Parental Income	Asian/Pacific American			Black			White		
	Percent who took test	Median verbal score	Median math score	Percent who took test	Median verbal score	Median math score	Percent who took test	Median verbal score	Median math score
Total number	31,329			82,162			747,712		
Percent	100.0			100.0			100.0		
Under $6,000	7.1	299	485	17.5	284	319	2.2	404	435
$6,000-11,999	16.8	331	494	30.9	302	331	8.5	412	446
$12,000-17,999	17.0	362	502	20.3	323	348	14.2	420	460
$18,000-23,999	15.8	388	508	12.9	339	361	19.0	427	472
$24,000-29,999	12.3	409	519	6.9	352	377	16.2	436	486
$30,000-39,999	14.2	428	535	6.7	370	393	18.2	447	497
$40,000-49,999	7.2	443	544	2.9	392	409	8.9	456	505
$50,000 and over	9.7	455	563	1.8	414	433	12.8	461	509

Source: New York Times, October 24, 1982.

Table 20. INTER-ETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN S.A.T. SCORES, BY INCOME: UNITED STATES, 1980-1981

Annual Parental Income	Differences between Asian/Pacific American and black American		Differences between Asian/Pacific American and white American	
	Median verbal score	Median math score	Median verbal score	Median math score
Under $6,000	15	166	-105	50
$6,000-11,999	29	163	-81	48
$12,000-17,999	39	154	-58	42
$18,000-23,999	49	147	-39	36
$24,000-29,999	57	142	-27	33
$30,000-39,999	58	142	-19	38
$40,000-49,999	51	135	-13	39
$50,000 and over	41	130	-6	54

Source: Calculated by the authors from data presented in New York Times, October 24, 1982.

Table 21. Differences between Asian/Pacific Americans (A/PA) and White Median SAT Scores by Parental Income: United States, 1982-1983[a]

Annual Parental Income	Verbal			Math		
	A/PA	White	A/PA - White	A/PA	White	A/PA - White
Under $6,000	261	411	-150	454	438	16
$6,000-11,999	302	415	-113	482	446	36
$12,000-17,999	354	421	-67	498	457	41
$18,000-23,999	378	426	-48	507	464	43
$24,000-29,999	401	432	-31	514	476	38
$30,000-49,999	439	450	-11	540	499	41
Over $50,000	464	463	1	569	513	56

Source: Okada (1984)

[a] Includes foreign students

Table 22. LANGUAGE BACKGROUND OF ASIAN AMERICAN (AA) STUDENTS IN ILLINOIS DISTRICTS WITH THE HIGHEST AA ENROLLMENT IN 1984-85

COUNTY/ District #		Total AA Students Enrolled	AA Non-English Background (NEB) Students	% NEB Students Among All AA Students	% Below Average in English Among all AA NEB Students
CHAMPAIGN	#4	220	150	68%	14.0%
	#116	233	166	71%	42.2%
COOK	#15	413	329	80%	17.0%
	#21	219	214	98%	30.4%
	#34	189	176	93%	28.2%
	#54	997	761	77%	18.5%
	#59	513	344	67%	38.7%
	#62	203	183	90%	13.7%
	#63	557	493	89%	20.3%
	#65	160	171	***	*****
	#68	380	322	85%	25.8%
	#69	216	205	95%	20.0%
	#73-5	199	160	80%	19.4%
	#74	232	188	81%	26.1%
	#83	457	66	14%	21.2%
	#97	217	143	66%	23.8%
	#207	350	212	61%	25.0%
	#211	439	208	47%	33.6%
	#214	446	326	73%	34.9%
	#219	536	635	***	*****
	#299	11,421	7,367	65%	44.7%
DEKALB	#428	136	103	76%	5.8%
DUPAGE	#4	158	133	84%	30.8%
	#16	362	325	90%	11.1%
	#58	276	213	77%	6.1%
	#61	245	185	80%	9.7%
	#86	270	148	55%	10.1%
	#87	327	224	69%	21.4%
	#99	269	173	64%	5.8%
	#200	386	386	100%	40.9%
	#203	411	303	74%	12.5%
	#205	278	217	78%	10.1%
KANE	#46	1,201	1,125	94%	47.2%
	#129	137	123	90%	6.5%
LAKE	#60	259	190	73%	12.1%
	#64	226	112	50%	20.5%
PEORIA	#150	308	256	83%	25.0%
	#365U	519	495	95%	11.5%
WINNEBAGO	#205	589	466	79%	33.9%

Source: Illinois State Board of Education, unpublished data calculated by the authors.

[a] Figures supplied by Equal Educational Opportunity Unit, Illinois State Board of Education.

[b] Non-English background for Asian American students is defined in the Bilingual Census by the following Asian Languages: Bengali, Burmese, Cambodian, Cantonese, Gujarati, Hindi, Hmong, Japanese, Korean, Lao, Malayalam, Mandarin, Marathi, Punjabi, Pilipino, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, Thai, Urdu, Vietnamese

Table 23. ETHNIC GROUP DIFFERENCES ON FOUR A.C.T. SUBTESTS BY SELECTED YEARS: ILLINOIS, 1970-83

A.C.T. Subtest and Year	Ethnic Group		
	Asian Amer.	black Amer.	white Amer.
Math Subtest			
1970-71	18.3	13.5	21.3
1975-76	19.3	10.7	19.1
1982-83	20.3	9.9	18.7
English Subtest			
1970-71	15.2	12.8	19.6
1975-76	16.2	11.8	18.5
1982-83	17.0	13.1	18.7
Social Studies Subtest			
1970-71	15.1	13.0	20.6
1975-76	15.9	10.3	18.3
1982-83	16.6	11.6	18.4
Natural Science Subtest			
1970-71	18.6	15.4	22.1
1975-76	20.2	14.3	21.9
1982-83	20.7	14.8	21.9

Source: Illinois State Board of Education (1984: Appendix C).

Table 24. AVERAGE A.C.T. SUBTEST SCORES BY INCOME AND SPECIFIED ETHNIC GROUP FOR SELECTED YEARS: ILLINOIS, 1970-83

A.C.T. Subtest by Year	Income	Ethnic Group: Asian	Ethnic Group: Black	Ethnic Group: White
1970-71				
English:	Low Income	13.76	12.12	18.55
	Medium Income	15.30	13.51	19.45
	High Income	15.97	13.38	20.13
Math:	Low Income	17.08	12.95	19.68
	Medium Income	18.87	14.29	21.73
	High Income	20.39	14.62	22.75
Composite:	Low Income	15.44	13.18	19.72
	Medium Income	17.28	14.63	21.26
	High Income	18.76	14.76	22.13
1975-76				
English:	Low Income	13.65	10.71	17.27
	Medium Income	16.08	13.26	18.38
	High Income	18.91	15.27	19.63
Math:	Low Income	17.84	9.71	16.80
	Medium Income	19.17	12.01	18.89
	High Income	22.68	14.64	20.89
Composite:	Low Income	15.82	10.87	17.93
	Medium Income	17.94	13.26	19.40
	High Income	21.11	15.55	20.98
1982-83				
English:	Low Income	12.16	11.82	17.42
	Medium Income	15.62	13.63	18.49
	High Income	19.93	15.14	19.53
Math:	Low Income	16.78	8.53	16.04
	Medium Income	19.81	10.60	17.74
	High Income	22.48	12.43	19.69
Composite				
	Low Income	14.13	11.25	17.71
	Medium Income	17.68	13.00	18.99
	High Income	21.48	14.60	20.32

Source: Illinois State Board of Education (1984: Appendix C)

Table 25. AVERAGE ANNUAL AGE-SPECIFIC[a] AND AGE-ADJUSTED (1940 U.S. STANDARD) DEATH RATES[b] FOR SUICIDE, PER 100,000 POPULATION, FOR WHITE AND BLACK AMERICANS: UNITED STATES, 1980

Age Group	White			Black		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All ages, crude	13.31	20.57	6.43	6.39	10.76	2.47
Age-adjusted	12.54	19.41	6.20	6.75	11.63	2.60
5 - 14 years	0.52	0.75	0.28	0.16	0.23	0.09
15 - 24 years	13.55	21.91	5.00	7.52	12.56	2.71
25 - 34 years	17.48	26.99	7.98	13.29	23.10	4.78
35 - 44 years	17.03	24.27	9.93	9.68	16.14	4.32
45 - 54 years	17.69	24.55	11.18	7.22	12.71	2.74
55 - 64 years	17.54	26.52	9.59	7.20	12.37	3.03
65 - 74 years	18.28	32.41	7.45	6.24	11.42	2.45
75 - 84 years	20.91	46.18	6.03	6.24	13.47	1.67
85 years & over	19.45	53.28	4.92	5.87	14.73	0.94

Source: Division of Vital Statistics, National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished data calculated by the authors.

[a] The numberator consists of 1979-81 cumulative number of deaths, the denominator is based on the total enumerated of the 1980 United States Census.

[b] Excludes deaths of nonresidents of the United States.

Table 26. AVERAGE ANNUAL AGE-SPECIFIC[a] AND AGE-ADJUSTED
(1940 U.S. STANDARD) DEATH RATES[b] FOR SUICIDE,
PER 100,000 POPULATION, FOR ASIAN AMERICANS: UNITED STATES, 1980

Age Group	Chinese			Japanese			Pilipino		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All ages, crude	8.27	8.26	8.28	9.08	12.57	6.14	3.61	5.34	2.00
Age-adjusted	7.97	7.93	8.02	7.84	11.08	5.00	3.71	5.43	2.00
5 - 14 years	0.30	---	0.61	0.86	1.69	---	---	---	---
15 - 24 years	6.39	8.07	4.65	9.41	14.09	4.52	4.84	7.67	2.11
25 - 34 years	7.13	8.59	5.72	12.18	16.72	7.82	4.38	7.03	2.50
35 - 44 years	9.01	8.94	9.09	9.10	12.68	6.39	4.19	5.63	3.03
45 - 54 years	12.28	10.77	13.89	8.75	9.81	8.22	4.24	5.71	2.97
55 - 64 years	12.34	9.37	15.52	9.93	12.38	7.78	4.71	7.27	2.76
65 - 74 years	24.35	25.85	22.61	6.61	11.17	2.17	7.25	8.75	4.53
75 - 84 years	33.51	21.82	44.32	25.01	39.56	15.75	11.72	15.87	---
85 years & over	56.13	64.10	49.93	62.59	139.76	19.50	39.78	55.14	---

Source: Division of Vital Statistics, National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished data calculated by the authors.

[a] The numerator consists of 1979-81 cumulative number of deaths, the denominator is based on the total enumerated of the 1980 United States Census.

[b] Excludes deaths of nonresidents of the United States.

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APPENDIX A

EDUCATIONAL ISSUES CONCERNING ASIAN AMERICANS IN ILLINOIS: A COMMUNITY FORUM

Educational Issues Concerning Asian Americans in Illinois

A Community Forum Sponsored by:
The Illinois State Board of Education
and
The Illinois Asian American Advisory Council to the Governor

Truman College, 1145 West Wilson, Chicago, Illinois
July 2, 1985

WELCOME AND FORUM OVERVIEW

Sheadrick Tillman, Ed.D., Manager, Urban and Ethnic Education Unit, Illinois State Board of Education

This Community Forum concerns educational issues relevant to Asian Americans in Illinois. The Illinois State Board of Education has a commitment to information gathering and sharing for Asian Americans in the state. All Asian Americans at both the state and federal level are grouped together in one category, but the various ethnic subgroups have different educational concerns and interests.

William Yoshino, Midwest Director, Japanese American Citizens League, and Chairperson, of the Asian American Advisory Council to the Governor

We want to elicit views, comments, and recommendations from individuals in the community. This forum shows a growing awareness on the part of the state of the unique concerns of Asian Americans in Illinois.

PANEL # 1 THE SOCIAL AND CULTURAL NEEDS OF ASIAN AMERICANS

William T. Liu, Ph.D., Director, Pacific/Asian American Mental Health Research Center, and Professor of Sociology, University of Illinois at Chicago

There are three major categories of Asian Americans: those who are "well established", those who are immigrants, and those who are refugees. Chinese, Japanese, and Filipinos are generally considered as established Asian Americans because they have had a longer history of immigration to the United States, while the Koreans and Thais, for example, represent the newer immigrants; and Vietnamese, Cambodians, and Laotians comprise the recent refugees from Asia. These heterogeneous groups have different levels of socioeconomic attainment and are not alike in their educational needs.

The so called "established Asian American," those born here and who have roots here, is a euphemism for being a minority without a well-defined identity. In this context, it is easier to be an immigrant or a refugee because you have an early childhood experience to look back to and you have an image of your cultural origin. You might feel sad because your homeland may be going through hard times, but you share that sadness and pride with other people of your rich cultural heritage.

If you're "established," you want to be part of the American scene but a lot of what you hear in school gives you very little feeling of identity. Yours is not an experience shared by other school kids. The textbooks say very little, if anything, about the culture and society from which your parents originate. Material on the Asian experience in America are not widely known to most mainstream educators nor available in textbooks. The efforts made to introduce more Asian American content in the curricula are too feeble and too little to make any kind of impact. It is ironic that there is a knowledge shortage about Asian Americans, when as a society we have seen a knowledge explosion. Whose fault is it? Is it the teachers? Or, should we--the Asian Americans--bear some responsibility for this void, for not being interested enough to fight for it?

As "established Asian Americans", we are looking for a place in the U.S. society. Yet, being established Asian Americans, immigrants, or refugees, we are still considered foreigners. Our loyalty to the United States is continuously questioned. In the search for identity, one may especially thirst for Japanese literature and history, or Chinese language. In talking with young Asian American men and women, I have found that these are the ways they manifest their search for identity. Immigrants and refugees, on the other hand, have quite a different problem. Their needs are more immediate because they concern issues of survival, of adjustment to mainstream culture, of learning new ways of thinking and feeling.

While the development of more Asian American content in the school curricula is important, what is needed also is more attention to a comparative approach on what it means to be an Asian American.

Sung Ok Kim, Chairperson, Sub-Committee on Education, Illinois Asian American Advisory Council to the Governor

The social needs of newcomer immigrants are many. Every immigrant needs to learn about the receiving culture, the way of life, the people, and the way of thinking in order to live here. This process is made very difficult due to language difficulties.

Most immigrants arrive here with big dreams, to become well-to- do economically, to be safe politically, and to be able to better provide education for their children. But the dreams quickly fade in the face of life's difficulties which include underemployment, housing, lack of assistance in medical care, schooling, day care. etc.

On top of that, the close knit families which Asians are proud of are slowly disintegrating. Because of language [problems], the parents have a hard time finding a job and both of them need to work in order to make a living. This means that children are left unattended or not well supervised.

Most immigrants arrive here with the desire for better education for their children. That is utmost in their mind. However, because both parents work and are very tired both emotionally and mentally, they don't have time to give emotional support or participate in the children's educational processes.

There is a communication gap between parents and children and a difference in expectations between parents and children. We see the beginning part of family disintegration and problems. There is no extended family or very close family around, and many immigrants feel intense social isolation, alienation, and loneliness. Everyone knows that learning English is a must, but the difficulty for the parents is that they have to work and don't have time to learn English. The children are doing okay as far [as] learning the language, but the parents are not.

The parents insist that their children do well academically and the students are carrying a great burden, they are under a great deal of pressure to do well academically, and they carry this chip on their shoulder. Because the parents will do about anything to provide for their children's education and the children know it, there is also resentment from the children that the parents push too hard. Many children are showing emotional problems.

Also, we teach our children to be obedient and to respect authority, so most Asian American children do not appear to have problems relating to teachers. But peers may reject the Asian American school child and call him names or teacher's pet.

The teacher's attitude has a lot to do with how the Asian American children behave and how they do in school. We have very few Asian teachers in Chicago public schools, and we have hardly any Asian administrators. For about 2,000 [Asian American] students, not having anyone [who is like them] to look up to is a real problem. So, language difficulties, employment, as well as social, economic, and political alienation seem to be the major social needs of Asian Americans. These problems produce problems of identity, feelings of frustration, inadequacies, and helplessness.

In general, new immigrants feel social isolation and long for close ties and activities with members of their own ethnic group. Most Asians maintain and are proud of their cultural heritage. Many of them stress [the importance of] teaching their children their own native language, attend cultural events, eat their own ethnic food, attend an ethnic church, and read the ethnic newspaper. Many live close by [ethnic neighborhoods], among themselves, almost creating their own colony. At home, the first generation speaks the native tongue. They are reluctant to seek help from outside in solving their problems and try to solve them [on their own]. So, the resurgence of ethnic identity seems to have magnified the social isolation that most immigrants experience. There is a great need to do the research and document the problems of Asian Americans.

Then we need to educate the public about Asian Americans to change their mind set, the teacher attitudes, the curriculum, the prejudice, and the discrimination and institutional racism. All of this has to be dealt with through public education. We need to train Asian American leaders, not just to lead the Asian American communities but to make the linkages with the mainstream society. We need to establish more community resources to deal with language, health, housing, education, child care, and senior citizen's problems of Asian Americans. We need to support and strengthen our family unit which is our strong asset. We need to have more dialogue among Asian Americans and work together as a group. We should promote the feeling of togetherness [and] promote more Asian American cultural affairs. We need to have more exchange programs with our motherland. We need to support bilingual education [and] to have more Asians in the political power structure and educational settings. In order to do these, we need more money from the local, state and federal levels to implement these recommendations.

Regardless of ethnic origins, Asian Americans [of whatever subgroup] are experiencing similar problems and it is vitally important for different groups to work together--instead of working apart--establish a positive group identity for Asian Americans in order to improve social, emotional, and cultural needs of fellow Asians.

Duong Van Tran, Director, Refugee Program, Truman College

I was asked to present some aspects of the cultural and social needs of Southeast Asian refugee children in American schools. As you are aware, the Southeast Asian refugees and their children [have] experienced enormous adjustment problems for many reasons. These refugees are involuntary immigrants who did not plan for their migration. These refugees speak languages which are extremely different from the English language. These refugees were brought up in the Cambodian, Laotian, Lao-Hmong, and Vietnamese cultures in strikingly different ways from the American culture. These refugees came from agricultural economies destroyed by continuous war, tragic starvation, and with a very low level of development. These refugees have been through horrible experiences during the war under the communist regime, during their dangerous escape for freedom, and during their stay in the refugee camps. These refugees have had to adjust to drastic changes in all aspects of life in America. Their cultural shock, misunderstanding, linguistic, cultural, and socioeconomic adjustment problems are formidable.

I would like to discuss the social and cultural adjustment problems of Southeast Asian refugee children in American schools with a series of observations. The first observation is that there are three factors which must be taken into account in any discussion of the Asian/Pacific American population. These three factors are diversity, ignorance, and change. This observation is also true with the Southeast Asian refugee population. Without clear recognition of these factors, [and of] how these factors affect the understanding of Asian and Pacific Americans, no meaningful discussion [of the educational needs of Asian Americans] is possible.

Indeed, although the concept Southeast Asian is an improvement over the concept of Indochinese, it is misleading. Among the Southeast Asian refugee population we have the Vietnamese, the Cambodian, the Laotian, the Lao-Hmong tribes, the Chinese Vietnamese, the Chinese Cambodians, the Chinese Laotians, the Yao, the Mien, and the Tai-da population. This tremendous diversity makes talking about the Southeast Asian population difficult and easily wrong headed.

Given the diversity of the population, it is important to state that there is ignorance about the differences that exist between various Asian groups in general and Southeast Asian refugees in particular and it is dangerous to put all Southeast Asians or all Asians into one box, to generalize, or to stereotype any one group of students whether they are Asian, Vietnamese, Cambodian, or of other origin.

One [typical] generalization is that Asian children are brilliant and Indochinese refugee children succeed in American schools. Not all Vietnamese refugee children are brilliant, and how about the children of the Vietnamese fish[er]man, the Cambodian farmers, the Lao-Hmong tribe people who have been deprived of from-five-to-ten years of education in their own homeland or in the camps? Indeed, a refugee brings to this country not only the values and norms of his country of origin but also the values and norms of his former social class, history, region, and his religious background. Thus we also have differences which may be ascribed to an urban versus rural background, to a traditional versus a modern environment, and to an affluent society versus an economy of scarcity.

For example, a North Vietnamese is quite different from a South Vietnamese or a central Vietnamese. These is also among the Cambodian or in any group, the iconoclast who reacts to everything Cambodian and acts in a most un-Cambodian way although his thought or behavior tends to be transient(?). Finally, there is the refugee student at various stages of acculturation. Their experience may be similar to those of many others, including immigrants, who came to the U.S. Therefore, it may be useful to the teacher to remember that not all Asian American cultural differences are fundamental ones and that both cultural and social factors are important.

I think the planners of this forum are insightful and correct in selecting the [theme], Social and Cultural Needs of Asian American Children, as the topic of this panel discussion. Being truly aware of the danger of generalization, it is safe to say that when we discuss the educational needs of Southeast Asian refugee children, we are discussing needs of children of minority groups, of Asian Americans, of Asian immigrants, of economically disadvantaged, of academically disadvantaged, of the refugee students, and of the limited English proficient students.

Thus, it has been observed that, like other Asian children, Indochinese refugee children show respect and obey others in authority and are a little disappointed that the spontaneous and self assertive behaviors of their American peers are not punished by their American teachers. Also, like other Asian children, it has been observed that the Asian refugee children have been considered by their teachers as passive, unresponsive, and lacking in initiative. It is also not uncommon that a refugee child might turn from a brilliant scholar in his homeland to a pathetic near flunkee in the American school all due to his inability to speak the English language. Thus, the problems of Asian refugee children must be understood in the light of their lack of English proficiency as well as their cultural background.

The refugee parents, however, share the responsibility of the adjustment of their children in school. Indeed, Vietnamese parents have been reported, not just to encourage their children to study, but in many cases with characteristic authoritarian display to force children to study and do well in school. This concern can in some cases translate into an oversolicitous attitude on the part of parents regarding help with homework.

In one reported case, a child's homework was almost always perfect. The teacher, therefore, had an erroneous idea of the progress of the child which lead her to give the child less attention than he needed and deserved. Getting less attention from the teacher, the child had to rely even more heavily on parents at home. This is a vicious cycle unwittingly entered into by some Asian parents and by any over eager parents anywhere.

Even these vaguely defined common problems of Asian refugee children are compounded by the additional problems of rapid change. Just look at Senn High School for example, and compare two Vietnamese refugee children. Both are 16 years old. One came here in 1975, the other came here in 1985. The 1975 refugee student may be proficient in English, but these children's family identification is with the cultural values and norms of their Vietnamese parents. Like other Japanese and Korean counterparts, the children need opportunities to evaluate the conflicting values and norms presented to them by their home and school environments, to learn about their home culture, and multicultural education is needed to encourage positive identity formation.

Now let's look at the 1985 refugee child. No education for Cambodian students after the Pol Pot regime exterminated more than 2 million Cambodians. The refugee camp environment provides no education at all to these refugee children. The 1985 refugee children receive in their homeland education under the Communist regime in which Marxism and Leninism is the new religion in the schools and political socialization is the number one objective of education. Fifty percent of the time [spent] in school is for [activities of] the Ho Chi Minh juvenile group or the Communist youth groups. Thus, these refugee children had a formalistic obedience [in order] to survive. [It's as if they] wear masks in school, but at home they and their parents are anti-Communists. The war experiences, the Communist experiences, the camp experiences had [lasting] effects upon their attitudes and behavior.

Let me now go beyond the conflicts of Asian versus American culture and discuss some of the problems of adjustment of refugee parents and children. Human misery and human problems are universal and the adjustment in America is a frustrating one for all immigrants and refugees regardless of their ethnic origins. Frustration might lead to withdrawal, denial, aggression, repression, depression, etc. At one extreme, many refugees express an attitude of denial when confronted with harsh realities. They may withdraw from American communities, communicate only with their ethnic enclave, and refuse to learn English or accept employment.

At another extreme, many refugees express an over acceptance of reality, a denial of their past, to become over Americanized, to take two or three courses in school while having two or three jobs at the same time so that they become extremely busy to feel worthwhile before they become exhausted. Thus, some refugees are very demanding and are never satisfied with the situation. On the other hand, many refugees express a burning desire to be independent and will accept any job to feel important and superior [to others]. Some refugees have become over Americanized and they join many people in this country to over work, over eat, over play, over sex, and over drug. Some refugees express a fight attitude and are very aggressive and critical in their approaches.

I think the above discussion is helpful to explain various adjustment patterns of immigrants and refugees in this land of contradictions. I think it is helpful to some teachers to discover that some of their Southeast Asian refugee children might be over Americanized too soon.

I would like to conclude my remarks with one point on cross-cultural communication. We have one example that involves a conference between a boy who is perceived as a misbehaving child by the teachers. The parents were notified that one of them should come to a conference. The result is a meeting between the boy, the mother, and the teacher. The teacher described the misbehavior of the boy and the mother tried to offer some explanation. The teacher then asked the boy, "Do you agree with that?" This simple sounding question implies a number of culturally implicit assumptions, among them that the boy has his own explanation and he would have no hesitation to contradict his mother. If the mother and the boy are Anglos, that assumption might be correct and valid. That is to say, whenever we discuss the cultural needs of Asian children, we also [should] discuss the need for cross cultural communication of teachers and counselors and the need for American teachers to have a self awareness about American culture and a deeper understanding of the Asian culture so that the teachers, the parents, and the students will know themselves and others, will accept themselves and others, will trust themselves and others, and respect themselves and others.

GROUP RECOMMENDATIONS TO PANEL ON "SOCIAL AND CULTURAL NEEDS OF ASIAN AMERICANS"

- Stop prescribing the same educational remedy for all students.
- Programs must be developed locally to fit groups and individuals within the groups according to the situation.
- Rewrite bilingual education guidelines so they are flexible.
- Provide recreation and summer school for students.
- Better monitoring of housing by social service agencies so that people do not have to live in unacceptable neighborhoods where they feel "preyed upon."
- State Board of Education should disseminate and make accessible information on Asian Americans.
- Need greater Asian American representation in all levels of teaching and administration.
- Identify problems and similarities among Asian Americans.
- Comparisons of Asian American achievement or problems should not be made with other racial/ethnic groups.
- We need assistance in certifying teachers.
- We need assistance in designing teacher training programs to meet the needs of both teachers and students.
- We need to look at how Asian Americans are portrayed in textbooks and other instructional materials.
- Institute Asian American studies programs in schools.
- We need assistance in obtaining Cambodian science materials.
- Need better assimilation of materials and resources.
- Need to increase the number of periods and time on tasks in content areas for Limited English Proficient (LEP) students.
- Provide opportunities for members of Asian communities and non-Asian teachers to discuss problems and experiences.
- Provide access to funds for materials for schools _immediately_ to assist acculturation of Asian immigrant and refugee students.

PANEL # 2 SCHOOLING: EDUCATIONAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS OF ASIAN AMERICANS

Tong-He Koh, Ph.D., Coordinator of Research, Bureau of Child Study, Chicago Board of Education

Since I am a psychologist, I will focus on psychological needs of Asian Americans. However, I would like to preface my comments by saying that the individual's psychological well-being is closely related to his/her learning and cognitive functioning. Another point I would like to make before discussing psychological needs is that there are vast inter-group variations (e.g. among different Asian ethnic groups) as well as intra-group differences within an ethnic group (e.g. first generation vs. third generation Japanese Americans).

In general, however, sojourner problems for ethnic minorities groups who have a marginal status after they immigrate to this country, are quite different from those encountered by immigrants who come from European countries.

The psychological costs of racism on minorities are immense. Constantly bombarded on all sides by reminders that white Americans and their way of life are superior, Asian Americans begin to wonder whether they themselves are not somehow inadequate. They feel that there is very little they can do in the face of such severe external obstacles as prejudice and discrimination. They feel powerless and helpless. Seligman believes that humans exposed to helplessness may exhibit passivity and apathy; they may fail to learn that there are events which can be controlled; and they may show anxiety and depression.

The effects of social change that Asian Americans experience are also different from what Europeans experience because of the wider disparity between Asian and Western cultures.

Any social change is stressful and may tax one's well being. It can have detrimental effects on the psychological well being of individuals. I think that most of the new immigrants and refugees have to adjust to social change. Their eating pattern changes, their life style changes, their occupation changes. Children have to adjust to a new educational system. These social changes affect individual psychological well being.

I mentioned that I'd like to touch upon the family system. The Asian family system is usually regarded as a very important variable that buffers against mental illness or psychological ill being, not well being. This has been proven by psychiatrists and researchers (who) have done lots of studies and compared those mental patients in the hospital (and find that patients who) live longer or adjust better are the ones with social supports (such as) either the family system, kin system, or neighborhood system. So, I think that this support system is very important.

In terms of theory, there are two prominent scholars who have studied Chinese families and Japanese families in this country. One is De Vos, a sociologist who studied Japanese families. His theory is that the Japanese family has a clear cut role definition among the family member. In case of crisis, clear role definition of family members, like the father is authority, mother is to obey, children obey authority, and male household figure decides on what to do. This gives a clear cut structure that makes family function better.

Hsu, a Chinese anthropologist, studied Chinese families. He found also that Chinese family members are very cohesive and support their family members in case of crisis. This becomes very good support system for mental illness or emotional disturbance.

Those are the good sides of the family system. But there are also negative influences of the family system. For example, as I mentioned before, if there are different degrees of acculturation among the family members, they create conflict among the family members. Other things they say is that if you have very structured role definition, your emotional communication among the family members becomes less than optimal. That creates lack of emotional support from family members. So those are just a few things that applies to family structures of Asian Americans in general.

But then I started to think how about other Asian Americans? As Dr. Liu and Duong Van Tran mentioned this morning, refugees have different needs than immigrants. Also, we have a so-called "high risk" group of the population. Some of the high risk population I thought about. For example, the elderly, like the Japanese first generation who have very little support system. In addition to their psychological problems, they have age related problems like isolation and loss, psychological and economic loss because you have to retire, you have to relinquish your role as a household. Also you have problems that pertain to the elderly group.

Wives of U. S. servicemen, the war brides are another high risk group. We have Asian women who were married to G. I.s during the war in Korea or Vietnam. They have serious psychological problems due to isolation. They don't belong to the so-called American family of their in-laws. They are isolated and when they don't talk easily to their family, they have communication problems with their husbands and children.

Alcoholism and drug abuse are not prevalent in all Asian communities but some Asian groups have serious problems with alcoholism and drug abuse.

In addition to developmental problems of adolescence, Asian children have to resolve identity problems and intergenerational conflicts and their peer group relations. So those are additional psychological problems for Asian adolescents.

Asian males who come here and have role reversal have lots of problems. For some Asian groups wife beating is a major problem because in their own country, the male was the head of the household and he had all of the authority. Here, they are underemployed or unemployed and the wife assumes the financial responsibilities. This results in the reversal of roles and the husband has to stay in the home. This creates problems of self identity and self-esteem. Role reversal creates lots of problems for Asian males.

There are other high risk groups. For example, those children who came from mountain villages who haven't had education at all. Those are the high risk Asian groups.

So, this gives a sketch of what Asian Americans are facing in this society. In terms of psychological problems, there are some good resources that we talked about before like the close family ties. Those are good things. Also, in this community in the Chicago area, there are many ethnic social service agencies which give help to those Asian high risk populations.

I think in terms of recommendations, we can recommend in terms of needs we can recommend what we want. In terms of policy making, since this is a Board of Education project and we were concerned with education of children, I would like to mention what is needed.

In the Chicago public schools, we have counselors who can deal with Asian American students. We have psychologist. But in terms of Asian American psychologists or Asian counselors, we don't have too many. And, as I said before, although we want to in service other majority counselors or psychologists, it's a very limited effort.

Other major needs that school children have if they are handicapped in any way, emotionally disturbed or mentally retarded or physically handicapped. They are usually sent to the so-called "retarded classes" because there are no trained Asian special educators. So, that's another need. Those are probably the major points I wanted to make. Thank you.

Dennis Naka, Coordinator, Department of Corrections School, Chicago Board of Education

What I would like to do is basically focus on the educational and psychological needs of second and third generation Asian Americans. I would like to begin with a quote from Harry H. L. Kitano.

> America likes success stories, the bigger, the better. Therefore, America should enjoy the story of the Japanese in the United States, unfinished as it is, for it is the story of success American style. It has all the elements of a melodrama. The Japanese hero is faced with initial suspicion, mistrust and hatred by the United States. Starting from this background of hostility and discrimination, the hero begins the excruciating process of winning the hand of the heroine. He pulls himself up by the bootstraps. He suffers rebuffs, rejection, and finally gains the grudging admiration and respect of the heroine. Acceptance, romance and marriage may be in the offing.

The hero in this particular melodrama is Japanese, but he could be Chinese, Korean, Thai, Laotian, Cambodian, Vietnamese or Indian. Asians have become the educational Horatio Algers of Chicago and many other American cities. Immigrant Asians have similarly achieved success through perseverance and hard work. Immigrant Asian Americans have and will achieve high educational and economic mobility. But these measures of success are misleading and divert attention from the serious psychological and social problems that Asian Americans still experience in American life because of their physical and cultural characteristics.

The struggle is not over with the education and acculturation of the first generation immigrant population. Each succeeding generation will be faced with an ever changing set of problems inextricably tied with physical and cultural heritage.

I'm a Sansei, which is a third generation Japanese American. Research has shown that the Sansei desire to be assimilated appears to be complete. Knowledge of the Japanese culture is so marginal that we cannot anticipate their return to traditional Japanese cultural interests. The only factor that prevents them from complete assimilation seems to be a combination of their physical visibility and the racial prejudice on the part of the dominant group members.

This is the crux of the problem that have faced many if not all of the succeeding Asian American generations. The gradual loss or rejection of their native culture, but an inability to move totally into the mainstream of American life. Culturally, you may be as American as "mom, apple pie, Chevrolet, and Coca Cola." But reality is as close as the nearest mirror where the face staring back at you does not have blonde hair and blue eyes or in the nearest playground where Asian children experience ridicule and name calling and teasing. The physical characteristics of Oriental children allow immediate recognition of racial differences. These physical differences preclude us from ever being just plain old Americans. No matter how hard we try, the best we can hope to be is hyphenated Americans, that is Japanese-American, Chinese-American, Vietnamese-American, Korean-American, etc.

The educational and psychological problems of Asian Americans will shift from language acquisition and acculturation to more subtle social and psychological problems. No matter how hard the Asian child tries to divest himself from his original cultural pattern, he still remains different. His self image, that of native born American, conflicts with the way that others perceive him. A second and third generation child may want to be one hundred percent American and may view himself as one hundred percent American, yet the majority society views him as Asian first and American second while his parents may resent and be offended by his rejection of their traditional cultural patterns. A situation develops where the child wants to be more American, his parents want him to be less American, and the majority society tells him he is something less than American.

All of this can be confusing to sociologists and educators, but it is devastating to a six year old child not only learning how to read but trying to sort out his identity and bolster his self image as well. In education, an attitude of self esteem and pride is an important accomplishment of school years. It is important to note that the self image and occupational aspirations of minority children actually declines in the early years of public school. The significant problem of second and third generation Asians will not be what they learn in the cognitive realm but what they learn about themselves in the affective realm.

The current trend in education is the concept of multicultural education. This marks a departure from the old melting pot concept which held that minority groups should and will eventually abandon their unique cultural components and assimilate those characteristics of Anglo Americans, the dominant cultural group. Now educators and social scientists have documented abundantly the fact that ethnicity and ethnic cultures are integral parts of our social system and these aspects of American life are exceedingly resistant to change. Accordingly, American society and schools should undergo a gradual transformation to a society that values diversity or cultural pluralism in the present and the future. If the goal of society is cultural pluralism, then it must be reflected in every aspect of the educational system from teacher training, curriculum, text books, parental awareness and involvement. Multicultural education not only demands a new awareness and understanding of cognitive teaching skills, but an ever increasing need for the development of affective teaching skills.

Asian Americans are, ironically, victims of their own success. In a system that struggles to teach its students to read at grade level and behave in the classroom, if you are a success academically and are a model of comportment, you are not viewed as having a problem, no matter what the psychological cost of your success. Asian Americans can no longer afford to watch the minority struggle from the sidelines. They have their own cause to fight since they are also victims, albeit with less visible scars.

Maria Acierto, Ph.D., Bilingual Program Evaluator, Department of Research and Evaluation, Chicago Board of Education

I am reminded of what Dr. Liu said earlier, that the second or third speaker might be repeating what the first has said. I shall try my best not to repeat too many things that have been said [by speakers] ahead of me.

In so far as equal educational opportunities for Asian Americans is concerned, I would like to state a catalogue of unmet needs.

The facts are that:

1. The state of Illinois is the home of a large number of Asian Americans who originate from a variety of Asian language, cultural, and national origin backgrounds.

2. Chicago is not the only place where there is a concentration of Asian Americans.

3. There are some school districts in different parts of the state which have a large group of students from one or two Asian American language, cultural, or national origin groups.

4. When present in sufficiently large numbers within a specific school district, appropriate educational programs are in place for students of such Asian American groups.

5. However, when there are fewer than twenty students who need the programs, they do not exist.

6. All the other Asian American students, of a multitude of language, cultural, or national backgrounds are not given educational opportunities responsive to their needs.

7. Even where adaptive educational programs are in place, implementation of the programs is very limited in scope due to the lack of necessary responses.

And I think ahead of me they have talked about so many other things, other than psychological problems. They have talked about so many things that have happened and the problem because of not enough [Asian American] teachers to teach the kids. I will go on [to finish my presentation] and latter on I will make some recommendations.

The second part that I would like to mention at this time are the student needs. In addition to the generic factors which influence the relevance of school curricula for its students, there are three new types of difference which need to be considered in making the curricula relevant to Asian American students.

The generic factors are: the differences in English language preparation. Some of the kids that come to this country from Asia, some of them have educational background, and some of them do not have any educational background in English so they do have a very difficult problem in learning the language.

There is also a difference in academic preparation by which I mean, how much school[ing] have they had? In terms of academic preparation, are they proficient in their own language? If these students are not proficient in their own language, they do have problems in learning English.

Difference in their native language preparation, we have so many different Asian languages. If those kids did not have too much preparation in their own language, they have a difficult time in even accepting the language which we have to be teaching them. And I think that the main thing in here is is there a relevance in the school curriculum? This has been said several times this morning. I want to repeat what Dr. Liu said. There are materials, but they are too feeble to make an impact. I believe that the materials that we do have, are not geared or fit because there are so many different levels of LEP (Limited English Proficient) students. Due to these three factors, Asian American students need a lot of help in order to have an equal opportunity in education.

We also have resource and program needs. The facts of student needs specified earlier contribute to the following resource and program needs:

1. Bilingual education programs for less than twenty students, which I mentioned earlier are not in place.

2. Bilingual special education opportunities for exceptional children of specific language backgrounds are also needed.

3. We are in dire need of a state sponsored educational materials/acquisition development project. For example, developing an Asian American educational material depository and supply center serving all Asian languages in the state might be a good resource for all the acquisition of materials.

4. Another program need that we know, if it is not the most important, it is one of the most important, is recruiting and state subsidized training of Asian Americans to become fully certifiable teachers.

You may have seen here and elsewhere a lot of Asian teachers who come with a certificate [i.e., diploma] from their own country. In this country we need certification for every possible thing in order to become a regular teacher, a licensed doctor or attorney, or anything. Some of these teachers who are coming from Asian countries are not given a job because of the problems with certification.

I would like to repeat a passage which I read in one of the books which talks about the barriers of opportunity.

> The manifestation of barriers to opportunities, such as institutional neglect, is a form of institutional discrimination. For example, immigrants with credentials from Asian and Pacific Island countries have extraordinary difficulty in obtaining licenses to practice their professions in the United States. Educated and highly skilled Asian people find it hard to get a job.

I believe that in order to get some of these problems solved, I would like to repeat that resource and program needs number 3 and 4 (materials acquisition/ development and state recruiting and subsidized training to help Asian Americans become fully certified teachers) are especially important.

I would like to talk about the instructional materials which I have mentioned earlier. Cronback noted the importance of instructional materials for implementing educational goals and curricula. Instructional materials serve as the catalyst for the transformation of concepts from theory to practice. He proposed three categories of materials that are essential for successful implementation of multiculturalism into our educational system.

1. Teacher awareness materials. These materials should help teachers to examine their own beliefs, values, prejudices and attitudes; to acquire basic information about social norms and institutional norms; and to learn about the differences among cultures, races, sexes, ages, and physical sizes and handicaps.

2. Students awareness materials. These materials will help students evaluate their beliefs, values, prejudices, and attitudes; learn basic information about social and institutional norms; and learn cultural, racial, sex, age, and physical differences of their peer group.

3. Third, and finally, classroom materials that will help teachers communicate respect for all children in every classroom in our pluralistic society.

GROUP RECOMMENDATION TO PANEL ON "SCHOOLING: EDUCATIONAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS OF ASIAN AMERICANS"

- Eliminate the time lag between arrival, census, funding, staffing, materials development, and delivery.
- Establish newcomer centers in appropriate parts of the city for students nine years old and above who have not been to school in their own country or who went for a very short time for the kinds of catch up work they need.
- Require all teachers who teach English to the Limited English Proficient (LEP) to have special training.
- [Provide] State funding for the programs recommended by this group.
- The Illinois State Board of Education could assist Asian American immigrants by funding special emergency programs for tutoring new immigrants.
- Increase class contact time for recent immigrants in all curricular areas, not only English. For example, 10 periods in math, social studies, and science instead of only 5 or 7 periods.
- Supply funding for tutoring after school and in the evenings in local park districts.
- Encourage the United Way to fund a volunteer tutoring program for Asian immigrants.
- Fund/organize "literacy volunteers" to come to school to assist teachers who work with language deficient students.
- Establish an Illinois Certification Office within the State Board of Education so that the credentials of foreign born teachers can be evaluated locally instead of sending the work to California or Milwaukee to be evaluated.
- Subsidize training of bilingual teachers in Asiatic languages.
- Establish emergency funding for bilingual teacher aides in Asiatic languages.
- Have bilingual and bicultural programs for Asians and other LEP students.

PANEL #3 GEOGRAPHIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC ISSUES RELATED TO EDUCATION IN THE ASIAN AMERICAN COMMUNITY

Tom Teraji, Director, Bureau of Facilities Planning, Chicago Board of Education

I have handed out some materials. (Attachment A) Even demographers who are [population] experts do not agree about what is happening in the United States.

I will try to cover what I think is significant in the population [growth] of Asian Americans.

Since the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 and the Japanese Exclusion Act of 1924, the U. S. government has done just about everything possible to prevent any in-migration from Asia. It wasn't until 1965 that immigration from Asia and the Pacific Islands began [to open up]. Within a period of about fifteen years, at least up to 1981, some 3.5 million Asians have migrated to the United States and therefore were classified as Asian Americans. They constituted at that time over 40% of all in-migrants to the country.

According to Bryant Robey, staff of the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii, some 3.5 million Asians in-migrated to the United States by 1980. The Census Bureau lumps together, by the way, the Chinese, the Japanese, the Filipinos, the Asian Indians, the Vietnamese, the Koreans, Hawaiians, Samoans and Guamanians into that category of Asians and the Pacific Islanders.

Ironically, in 1980, Congress passed the Refugee Act which took effect at approximately the same time as the 1980 Census data was being collected. So, Mr. Robey indicates that this could not be a true picture of [the Asian/Pacific Islander population,] especially the Southeast Asians, the Vietnamese, the Cambodian, the Laotians, because here they were in-migrating. The 1980 enumeration does not give a true picture of just how many Southeast Asians have come into the United States. Robey estimates that some 700,000 Southeast Asians came to the United States from 1980 to 1984.

The Population Reference Bureau does not agree with his figures. Please refer to the hand out I gave. Mr. Robey indicates that the migration will continue [over] the next three to four years. In addition, there are still some 100,000 refugees who are in resettlement camps in Southeast Asia. The U. S. government has agreed to admit about 50,000 more in the course of 1985. In addition, about 12,000 Vietnamese are eligible to enter the United States each year under the departure program agreed to by the United States and Vietnam. So, with all this, the Asians are actually the fastest growing minority in the United States.

The Asian population grew by some 142,00 between 1978 and 1980. By the year 2000 the number of Asian Americans will double again to more than 8 million according to staff at the Population Reference Bureau in Washington. In 1980, on a national basis, the Chinese became the largest Asian ethnic group in the U. S. accounting for 23% of all Asian Americans. Ten years earlier, the Japanese had been number one, a position they held since 1910. By 1990, it is projected that the Filipinos will out number the Chinese. By year 2000, the

Koreans will surpass the Japanese and become the third largest Asian ethnic group in the United States,

How will this national trend effect the midwest? Illinois? The city of Chicago? According to the Census Bureau, the 1980 Asian population for the state of Illinois was 170,000. The tables in your packet shows the Filipinos in Illinois are number one with 44,000, Asian Indians with 37,000, Chinese with 29,000, Koreans with 24,000, Japanese with 18,000, Vietnamese with 6,000 and others at 12,000, totaling 170,000. The Population Reference Bureau projects that by 1990, the State of Illinois will have some 318,00 Asian Americans and by the year 2000 will have some 461,000 Asian Americans.

Next, going to the six counties surrounding Chicago which are Mc Henry, Lake, Kane, Du Page, Will and Cook. In 1980, the Census data indicated that there were some 141,339 Asian Americans residing in these six counties. If you look on the map, in Cook county alone there are 111,594 Asian Americans. This constitutes 88.6% of the total Asian American population in the state. It is obvious that in the northern section of the state of Illinois, we have close to 90% of the Asian American population.

On the following page you will see pretty much where the Asian Americans reside outside of the city of Chicago in metropolitan municipalities with large concentrations of Asians. This includes, by the way, Alaskans and American Indians. This was the only information I could find on municipalities and the non-Whites are primarily Asians.

We will look to the city of Chicago. For the city of Chicago we identify some 69,191 Asian Americans. The next page shows them broken down by ethnic background. They add up to 69,191. If we were to go as we did in 1980 percentage wise in terms of the overall state Asian American population, then in 1990, we should have about 138,966 and in the year 2000 some 201,457. Now these are projected figures and we don't know how reliable they will be, but at least they will give you an idea of what's going to happen to the city of Chicago.

In the meantime, going into the six counties which I have just read off to you, we will have approximately 400,000 at the turn of the century in the six counties in and around Chicago. We are saying basically, that the largest population of Asian Americans by far will be in the northeast portion of the state of Illinois, in and around Chicago.

Now, where are these Asian Americans? On the next map we have the Asians broken down by community areas. About 7,119 reside in the Uptown area. The second largest group is in the Albany Park area which is pretty much divided by Lawrence and the center line, the first street is Kedzie and we find that, this is the 1980 Census, but I would say very close to 10 to 11,000 residing in the area now. We do not have official figures, this is determined by the growth of our public school students. We are able to see a shift in that community area. The population continues to shift west and to shift north. So, this is pretty much where Asian Americans are residing in Chicago. Going south, in Armour Square which is actually part of Chinatown, you have some 5800 Asians residing. In the contiguous areas of Chinatown you have some moving into Bridgeport.

On the last page, I have the Asian American enrollment by Chicago school districts. Currently we have 20 school districts. We see that district 2 has the largest Asian American population. We do see that this population is shifting west into district 1. Even by this year or next year, this district will have a larger Asian American enrollment than district 2.

If the population increase continues at the speed at which it is currently going, by 1990, we will have some 19,000 Asian Americans enrolled in our Chicago public schools and by 2000, some 27,663. If we were to take public, private and parochial schools, then by 1990, we will have some 27,237 students and by 2000, we will have close to 39,485 students. I mention this because our past history with the Chicago Board of Education is that we are never able to keep up with the shift in population. We were 12 or 15 years behind in terms of the shift in population during the 1960s. We finally caught up for the Black students and now there are 10 schools under capacity. But we are now behind with regard to the Hispanic community. Whether or not we will have funds to provide new facilities for our in migrating Asian Americans is a question which will have to be resolved very soon.

The Board of Education, just like other large bureaucracies, has the tendency of not planning ahead, simply because they are still planning behind. We should have had all of these schools up for the Hispanics ten years ago, so we are always behind and we have to take care of what is behind before we can go into what we project as the new in migration from Asia. In terms of the educational aspects, we'll have funds, in terms of the facilities, and I think we will be a little bit behind in offering the kinds of the bilingual programs that are necessary to cope with new in migrants.

The Board are not believers, they have to see. Even though we can project a trend and provide them with numbers, they will not provide programs until those numbers are here. The other two problems that I foresee in this mass migration of Asians are, of course, housing and employment.

We are making a mark in terms of the city of Chicago and even the news media. I still read the comics, and the comic called Wee Pals has a new Vietnamese pal. This is the first positive Asian image I have seen in the comics. With that I will close my presentation.

Tran Trong Hai, Ph.D., Consultant, Midwest Bilingual Multi-functional Support Center, Arlington Heights

I am not a demographer, so I will not talk much about numbers. I hate numbers; I can't even balance my check book. What I am interested in saying is how the demographic patterns effect the educational programs for Asian Americans, especially those who are Limited English Proficient (LEP).

First I would like to mention a little bit about the different patterns of immigration. Among Asian Americans there are two distinct patterns of migration, one for the Southeast Asian refugees and one for the rest of Asian Americans. The rest of Asian Americans includes the Chinese, Japanese, Koreans, Filipinos, East Indians, etc. The pattern of immigration is such that you move from the home country directly into the ethnic enclaves in this country because those people have relatives here and those relatives would sponsor or petition for relatives from the home country to come. There is a direct link between the ethnic enclave in this country and the home country.

With regard to the Southeast Asian refugees, the pattern of immigration is that they have to go through a third country. There was no direct link, up until recently, between the home country and an ethnic enclave for the Vietnamese or Cambodians or Laotians. Before 1975, there were less than 50 Vietnamese students in this area. Where I was in upstate New York, there were only 10 Vietnamese students. So, there was not an ethnic enclave of Southeast Asians. The refugees had to go from their home country to the refugee camps in Southeast Asia or for those who came in 1975, the camps were in the Philippines, California, Arkansas, or Pennsylvania. Once they are in society, they are sponsored by different groups of people, by American citizens. I don't know whether this is the official policy of the U. S. government, but it was a policy at the time and it may still be now, to disperse these people all over the country. For that matter, you can see that there are some differences in how people, how different Asian groups are received in this society and how fast or how slow they are assimilated or Americanized. I guess, for the most part, because of their being in isolated situations where they are the only Asian Americans among the whole American community, they are Americanized faster than those who live in ethnic enclaves. But that doesn't last too long.

There is another phenomenon among Southeast Asian refugees, that is secondary migrations. Once they settle somewhere in the country, they learn fast that they could move around. For that matter, if they are not happy where they are, they move to places like California, and Texas, and Florida for three reasons. One is for the climate, it's warmer out there. The second reason is that there are more Vietnamese, more Cambodians, or more Laotians out there so people want to be together with other people that they can talk to. The third reason is job opportunities. Where ever there are jobs, they move to that region. Now, since 1975 and for at least the past five years since 1980, ethnic enclaves have been formed among the Vietnamese, Laotians, Cambodians, and Hmongs. That's why in Illinois there are ethnic enclaves, there are great concentrations of Asian Americans. In fact, Illinois has the fourth largest Asian American population in the country after California, Hawaii, and New York.

In Illinois, Chicago attracts the bulk of Asian Americans while other cities, especially downstate, we have very scattered populations. As mentioned earlier, we have concentrations in Chicago, in Elgin, in Rockford, in Wheaton, in Peoria, and to a certain extent in Champaign-Urbana too.

With regard to meeting the educational needs of Asian Americans, we've been talking about how we are perceived in this country. I would like to distinguish, like Dr. Liu did this morning, between the well established Asian Americans and the other category which would be the newcomers because they have different needs.

Asian Americans within the American society have a very distinctive image. We have been labeled as very good in math and science. I have a theory that if you go into any classroom with Asian American kids, you notice something, especially those kids who do not speak too much. I think in Asian culture, children are taught to be listening, to follow the example, to follow the role model rather than to express themselves. And children do have the need to express themselves, but since they can't do it verbally, they will have to do it through other things like doing good homework which is one way of expressing themselves, like doing good calligraphy, and handing in good papers. If you go to a classroom you find that Asian American kids can't speak English too well and the classroom teacher does not know what to do with him or her so he puts him or her in the back of the classroom. Soon she finds out that the kid can do some math problems, so while the teacher is teaching other things like social studies and reading, she gives the kid math problems to do. The more the kids do those different sheets, the better they become in math. Practice makes perfect.

Another thing is that when I came here, I came here as a student. Most Asian students came here to study technology, science and math. No body would come here to study philosophy or literature, they would rather go to Germany, France, or England to study those things. So, those students after they study those things would become American citizens. Even when I came here and studied linguistics, one Christmas vacation I went to see a family with my friend. I was asked what I studied and I said linguistics. They asked what that was and why didn't I study engineering like other people. I said I'm not like other people.

There is another problem among professional Asian Americans. We are considered a model minority. All the praises about Asian Americans are not really praises about us. If you look at that really carefully, the praises came out in the media during the 1960s, the Civil Rights movement. It was a retaliation to the Black and the Hispanics. You guys are asking for this and that. Look at those Asian Americans. So this is a punitive action for other groups, not praise for Asian Americans. Why? Because Asian Americans have been discriminated against in jobs and all aspects of society. We do not earn as much money in our jobs as White people and why can't we advance to the managerial level? We just stay at the professional level. We still earn less although we do the same job as other people.

Just recently during the Reagan administration, the term model minority came back to haunt us. The result is that a lot of universities around the country, especially on the East coast and the West coast, they say you guys are doing so well we don't need you in the quota anymore. They don't consider Asian Americans in the minority anymore in terms of benefits. So, on the one hand we are proud and happy that they say we are models, but on the other hand it's not too good for our future or our children. We need to keep this in mind when we think about the education of our children.

Another thing is that there is a lack of participation among Asian Americans in the American system. I don't know, maybe it's because we concentrate so much on technology and science and we are lacking in the areas of social studies and participation in politics, the political system. How many Asian Americans study law and become lawyers? Very few. How many would study the humanities instead of science and computer or business?

With regard to the newcomers, the biggest problem they have is the language problem. Not just language, but also interpersonal communication problems. You may not know the language, but you may be able to communicate with other people. And I think that for the newcomers, they brought with them cultural baggage from their own country with a whole different view of life, a whole different perception of society which is different from what this society offers. For that matter, they have adjustment problems. And especially with the children. Children may be able to function in a classroom somewhat because if they have prior education experience back in their home country, they may be able to function in the American schools. Still, as you know, in order to function successfully in school, you not only have to know the subject matter, the content, but also you have to know how to predict certain things will happen in the classroom, in the test. If you cannot do that, you will not do well. A lot of students can do very well in the class, understand everything, but when it's time to take the exam, that student may not be able to do it mainly because he does not know how to predict what will be asked in the test.

In education, we are talking about three types of learning, that is knowledge learning, skill learning, and attitude learning. American schools are very good at teaching knowledge and skill learning. But they lag behind or just neglect attitude learning. To a lot of Asian Americans, being part of something is very important, attitude toward other people, relationships with others is very important. That is not taught in American schools. I remember back in Viet Nam, from first to twelfth grade we had to study civics and moral education and related subjects. At the time we hated it, but now we can see the good of it. It teaches you your relationship with other people, your relationship with your school building and so forth, and your relationship with your classmates. That may be the Asian American kids, and the newcomers kids, they may not be able to function in a classroom that well because of the lack of that kind of learning.

With regard to demographic and geographic influence and effects on the kinds of programs we have for these kids, especially LEP kids. What kind of program is appropriate for these kids? There may be three kinds of education programs. One is bilingual education program by which I mean those programs which use both languages, the native language and English, as the medium of instruction. The kids learn English as a second language. The first language, the native language, will be used to teach them the content areas so that by the time you will be able to function in the ordinary setting, you won't be behind in the content area. That's the main purpose of bilingual education.

The second program is the English as Second Language (ESL) program. You just put the kids in the regular classroom and set them aside for a certain time and teach them English only. We hope that after six months, they will be able to function in the English language.

The third kind of program is the non program. Just look at other American kids. Put them in a regular classroom without any special help. This may not happen in Chicago, but it does happen in other places. In downstate you have some places like that. Especially if you have scattered students. If you have only one Japanese, or one Chinese, or two Vietnamese, or three Cambodians, they don't see the need for special programs for Asian Americans.

I am a firm advocate of bilingual education programs. Let me tell you a personal experience here. I have three children who came here as teen agers in 1980. When they came, they did not know a single word of English. They spent a year in the refugee camps in Indonesia. When they came, I was living in Milwaukee and the school did not have a bilingual program. They had some ESL. They put my two high school kids in regular classrooms and one period a day, an ESL teacher would come and teach them ESL.

I got mad, but there was nothing I could do. I saw the principal, but he said he could do nothing. I saw the head of the bilingual program for the Hispanics. I had to do something for my own kids. They are my responsibility too. I was bitter because I paid taxes like anybody else, but my kids did not get much out of that. What I did was that I decided to provide them with bilingual education. I had to ask the teachers what they were going to teach each day or week. I had to learn those things myself and then in the evenings I spent two hours trying to teach my kids those things in Vietnamese. They could then function in the classroom. And after a while they did pretty well and as a matter of fact, after three years my daughter graduated valedictorian of her class.

I have a firm conviction about bilingual education. It works. But, I have to tell you that there are some bilingual education programs that I wouldn't put my child into because of the way they are run. If they don't have good teachers, if they don't have competent teachers who can speak both languages equally well. To be bilingual teacher, you must know both languages well. You must be a teacher before you can become a bilingual teacher.

In large concentration areas like Chicago, Elgin, or Rockford, it is easy to have bilingual programs because you have the numbers. But in scattered populations, it is hard to provide such programs to the kids. In this, we have to turn to tutorial programs. We need to look at tutorial programs more because those scattered populations deserve as much service as other kids get. Tutorial programs can be in the form of ESL, native language support services. I do believe that they need native language support services for those kids too.

Now one more thing. There are other things I'd like to mention and make suggestions, especially in high concentration areas. One is a community homework center. In Asia only the men will go out and work and the women would stay home and take care of the children. But here, both parents have to go to work and sometimes they have two jobs. They have to work different shift. Therefore, a lot of kids go home after school to an empty house. They have no parental supervision. If we can create community homework centers so they can go there after school and there will be someone there to supervise their homework. I am a firm believer in homework too.

The other one is that I've seen a lot of communities having Saturday school. If you do not have bilingual programs where your language may be taught to the kids, then sooner or later the younger generation may not be able to speak your native language. There will be a language loss, a language shift from Vietnamese to English. A lot of parents don't want that to happen. I've seen Saturday morning language schools which teach kids Chinese, Korean, and some Japanese. They teach them how to read and write, teach them to speak. Those are my suggestions. My conclusion is that with different types of populations, scattered and concentrated, we need different services.

William T. Liu, Ph.D., Director, Pacific/Asian American Mental Health Research Center, and Professor of Sociology, University of Illinois at Chicago

I have four tables which I will discuss to supplement my earlier presentation. (Attachment B) These tables were produced by our research center. One of the center's research agenda was to look at the socioeconomic status attainment of Asian Americans by comparing the 1970 and 1980 Censuses. My primary concern is family change and family formation of Asian Americans. The Center began its tabulation of Asian American educational statistics when I was asked to give a paper in New Orleans about two yeas ago.

The research question was: Now that we have a very clear message from the media and other sources that Asian American children have no problems in school, they are high achievers, they are good students, etc., are these allegations supported by facts? How do we counteract this image of the generally favorable picture and highlight the hidden problems behind the statistics on Asian Americans?

One of the things that we thought to mention is that behind statistics there are certain values that cannot be directly demonstrated but can be indirectly inferred from a combination of a number of figures. That is, we argue that the value for education on the part of the parents will have to be taken into consideration. The question we raised is simply this: Is social economic class and school achievement related in the traditional way that we understood them to be, namely that those who are from the higher income, better educated, and better occupational categories of the homes usually have children who are doing better in school? The argument is that because the upper-middle class or upper class have more resources, they have more options. There are more decision-making opportunities on the part of the children when there is a surplus of resources. You have to make decisions rationally. So, the entire home and school environment tends to support the cognitive and skill development of children in school.

Within a given population, if a very large number of children are deprived of adequate economic support in their educational experience, then you would find a greater proportion of children who perform poorly. But, if the evidence suggests just the opposite, then

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something else is at work. That something else, we assumed, would be the extra added effort on the part of the small collectivity, namely, the family. Thus, one often sees refugee families where all the family members tend to encourage each other, sacrifice a lot for one another, and help a lot as well.

Having made these various assumptions, we then proceeded to look at the data. What is the proportion of the families of Asian Americans in 1980 who are classified as below the poverty line using the Social Security Administration criteria? And a second thing is to what extent, regardless of this, that the absolute number and percentage of children of that particular ethnic group are growing up under the poverty line while going to school? If, for example, 40% of the Chinese American children grew up in poverty during their school years in comparison to say, 25% of the whites, or 60% of the Blacks, or 55% of the Hispanics, then I would say that the total experience of poverty in the school years would be different among these various groups. How these children perform during their school career?

But, this work has not yet been completed. We got as far as the number of people who have completed certain types of education. We got to the point where we have data on the proportion of families who are under poverty, but we never got to the percentage of school-aged children within each ethnic group who grew up in poverty. That part of the work still has to be done.

These data are not just simple data which can be copied from published tables or to do a simple joint distribution by using the 1980 Census. They are taken from the 5% Public Users Sample of the Microdata which contain information on socioeconomic class and education. At the same time, there are some calculations of other ratios which are not usually found in publications of the Census materials. The Pacific/Asian American Mental Health Research Center does have a 5% Public Users tape as well as two 1% Publics Users tapes so that when we combine these nonoverlaping sample tapes, we have a 7% which is probably more than anybody else has. The East-West Center has requested from us the raw data so that they can produce a set of new runs which by next year can be made available to us through their work.

Let's take a look at Table 1. Very quickly, I would like to just share with you some of the things on which we should focus. This table tells us that with regard to educational attainment the Asian Americans are not just very good. They are very good and very bad. If you look at those with no education at all, the Chinese had 11.1% and the Filipinos had 5.6% as in contrast to 1.4% for whites and 1.8% for Japanese Americans. This was for 1970.

For 1980, the Chinese Americans have improved but are still way ahead in terms of percentage figures of the whites which is .6%. Chinese Americans is 7.1%. They stand out very conspicuously as having a large percentage of people who are not educated at all. Vietnamese Americans, and again, I think we just heard that the 1980 Census gives a very biased estimates of the Vietnamese because they only included most of the first wave [of refugees who came in 1975 immediately after the Fall of Saigon]. The second and latter waves of Vietnamese refugees are generally worse off than the first wave, and most of them came after the Census enumeration. The Filipinos is 2.1% and it's more than three times as many with no education in percentage figures--not absolute figures--as compared with the whites.

If you look at the next two columns which I think I would cut off at the seventh grade, that is, the percentage of seventh grade or below, you find that in 1970 and 1980 the Chinese are fairly high as compared with the whites. For the Filipinos those with 4 years of education or less is very high and for Vietnamese 4.8% had 4 years of education or less.

On the other hand, if you go to the extreme right column of the table, in 1970 it is absolutely clear that Chinese, Japanese, and Filipinos are way ahead of the whites in terms of 4 years of college and over. If you look at the 1980 Census, things have not changed. This is what researchers [mean when they] say there is a bimodal distribution of educational attainment of Asian Americans. I have not shown you the picture of the occupation and income distribution, but they are very similar to the educational picture [shown here].

For table 2, I would like to present a graphic interpretation on the blackboard. It shows that the educational attainment of the Chinese in the early years was very low. Followed by during the war years when the students came and after the war years the students came as the seed [immigrant] population. Now, 1965 the law is passed and relatives and family members [of the seed immigrants] came followed by a large number of people who have no education.

For the Japanese, this particular trend is simply showing that earlier immigrants came in with very little education, but gradually only fairly well-educated people come to the United States as immigrants. And of course, that particular group consists of not only those who are citizens and permanent residents but also any person of Japanese descent who happen to be enumerated on April 30th, 1980. If you are a businessman, you could be enumerated and that goes into the statistics as foreign born. We have to be aware of that, it does not simply mean that you have to be a U.S. citizen or resident.

For the Filipinos, the number of highly educated professionals are the main part of the recent immigrants. The Asian Indians are also following this type [of immigration].

Table 3 shows the simple mismatch between education and occupation. That is, if you have a college education you should be able to do better things [than someone who is not college educated]. In this table, education is dichotomized into 4 or more years of college and less than 4 years of college and occupation is divided into professional, managerial, and administrative versus all other occupations. You will find that the Chinese, Japanese, etc. have large numbers of people who have lesser occupations after college graduation. This mismatch between education and employment is what demographers call underemployment.

Table 4 is the table I was referring to just a while ago. It shows poverty levels by ethnicity. Here, you see that in general, the Asian Americans have just as high a percentage if not higher percentage of families below the poverty level and at nearly below the poverty level. This demonstrates that the stereotype of Asian Americans as successful minorities is a myth.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

William Yoshino

I think the question we have to ask now is where do we go from here? And, today there were a lot of issues, concerns, and recommendations that have been brought out. They have been brought out at different levels. For example, we have talked about how these problems and issues effect the established Asian American communities, the newly arrived groups, and the refugee groups. It now becomes a task for Elena Yu and Mary Doi to use what has been imparted today as a guideline to their report which will be concluded in late September.

At that point, it becomes the responsibility of the various advisory councils to the governor and the mayor and incumbent upon organizations such as the Asian American Educators to proceed and follow up these recommendations. I understand that in the past there have been these kinds of conferences and we have brought out these kinds of concerns, without subsequent follow up. I think that this time, one of the reasons it won't fail is that the Illinois State Board of Education did sponsor this workshop and has official sanctioning so that at some point down the road, we can prevail upon the State Board to help us see through some of these recommendations.

Sheadrick Tillman, Ed.D.

I would like to say on behalf of the Illinois State Board that we really appreciate you coming out, showing your interest, providing your input, and giving us your feedback. We will use this to develop a significant response to the questions and concerns of Asian Americans here in Illinois. Thank you for braving the storm. Thank you all for your help and support.

ATTACHMENT A:

AMERICA'S ASIANS THE FASTEST GROWING MINORITY

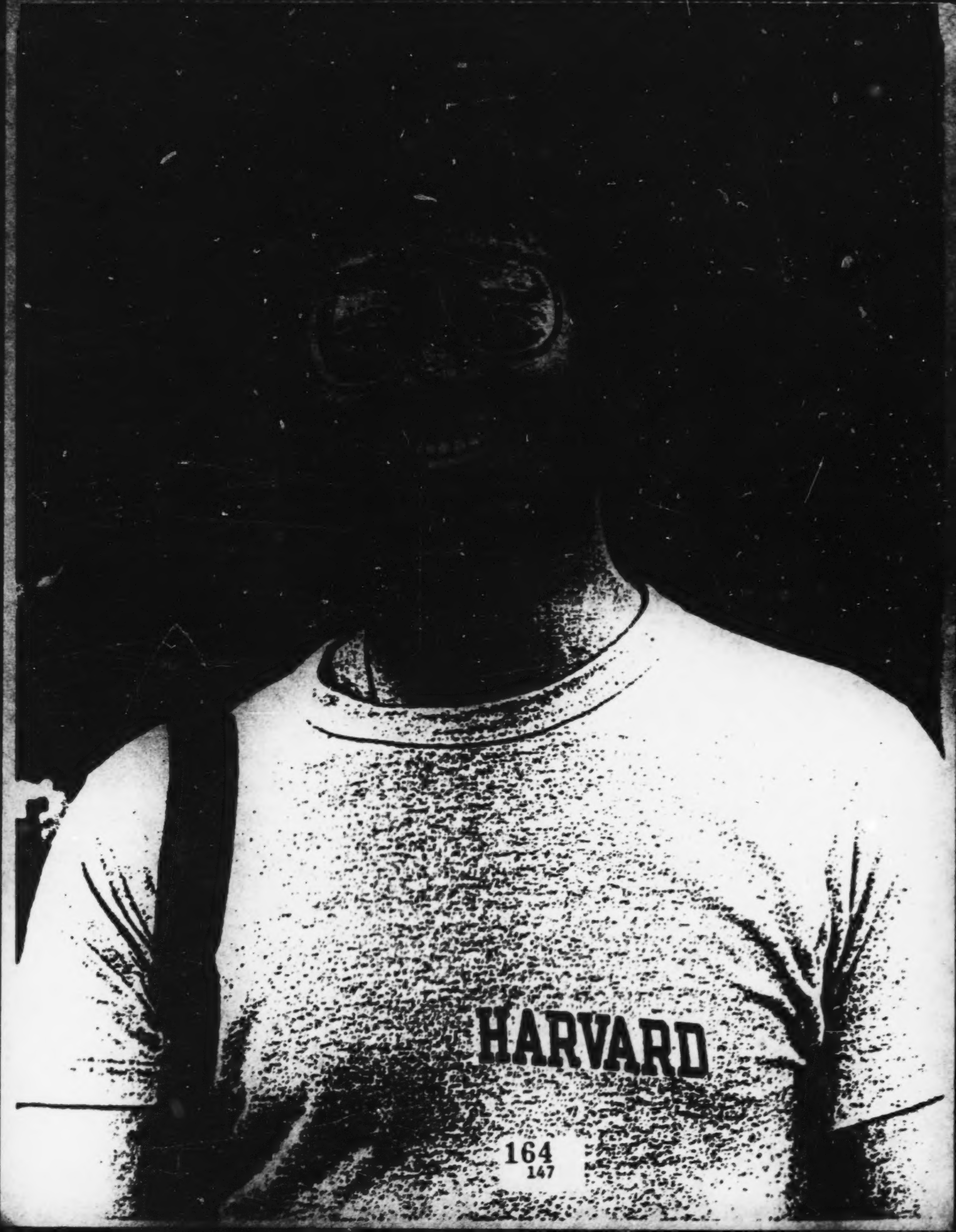
Presented by

Thomas Teraji

AMERICA'S

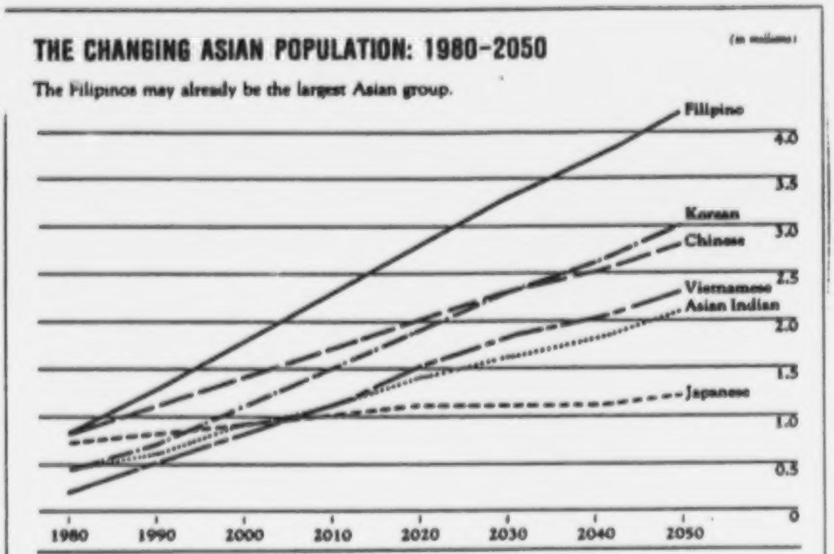
ASIANS

THE FASTEST GROWING MINORITY


HARVARD

THE CHANGING ASIAN POPULATION: 1980–2050

The Filipinos may already be the largest Asian group.



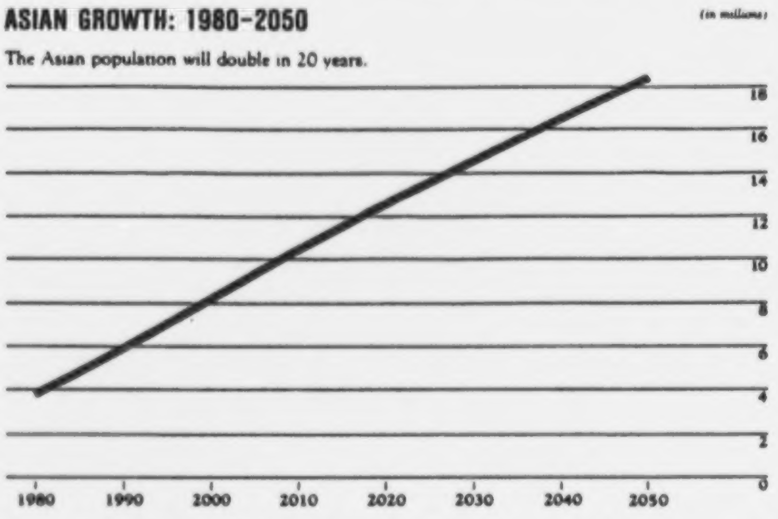
(in thousands)	Chinese	Asian Indian	Japanese	Korean	Filipino	Vietnamese
1980	812	387	716	357	782	245
1990	1,124	622	833	711	1,269	525
2000	1,440	875	936	1,092	1,783	830
2010	1,749	1,128	1,025	1,479	2,296	1,139
2020	2,033	1,376	1,078	1,874	2,802	1,456
2030	2,288	1,612	1,109	2,258	3,283	1,766
2040	2,525	1,828	1,138	2,607	3,722	2,048
2050	2,776	2,056	1,171	2,976	4,187	2,346

SOURCE OF INFORMATION:

AMERICAN DEMOGRAPHICS - MAY 1985
POPULATION REFERENCE BUREAU, WASH., D.C.

ASIAN GROWTH: 1980–2050

The Asian population will double in 20 years.



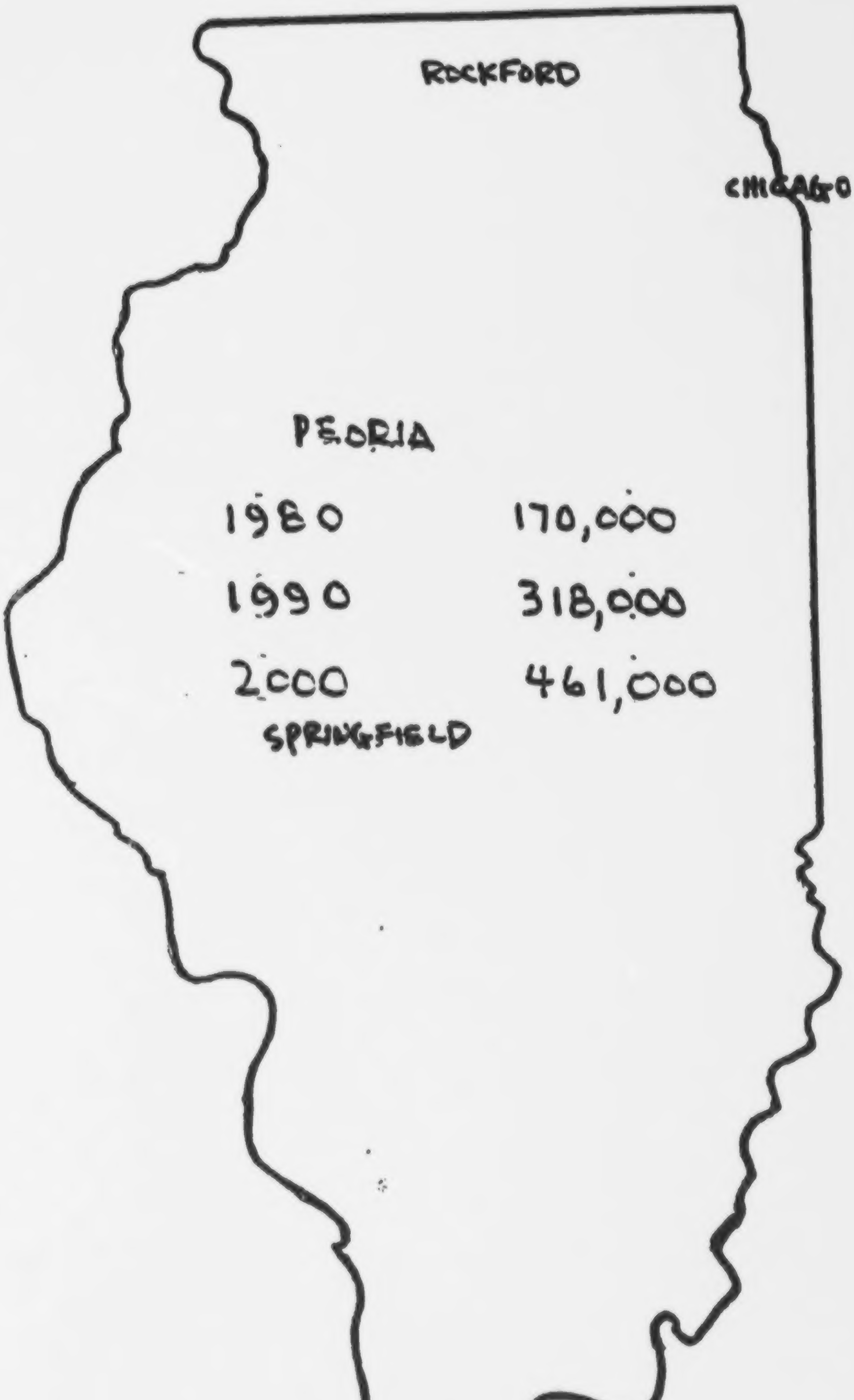
ASIANS BY STATE: 1980–2050

California, New York, and Illinois will continue to rank first, third and fourth (Hawaii is second) in the size of their Asian populations.

(in thousands)	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030	2040	2050
CALIFORNIA								
Chinese	326	434	542	647	736	821	897	977
Indian	60	95	133	180	207	244	276	308
Japanese	269	312	351	384	404	416	427	439
Korean	103	191	286	381	478	572	657	748
Filipino	358	553	756	958	1,154	1,338	1,508	1,686
Vietnamese	85	183	289	396	507	615	713	816
Other	112	274	397	532	639	757	866	976
Total	1,313	2,042	2,754	3,478	4,125	4,763	5,344	5,950
NEW YORK								
Chinese	147	207	268	328	384	435	481	531
Indian	68	104	145	183	221	256	289	323
Japanese	25	29	33	36	38	39	40	41
Korean	33	63	97	130	165	197	227	258
Filipino	36	61	89	116	144	170	192	219
Vietnamese	6	14	22	30	38	46	53	61
Other	16	73	110	149	182	216	248	281
Total	331	551	764	972	1,172	1,359	1,530	1,714
ILLINOIS								
Chinese	29	46	63	80	97	112	126	142
Indian	37	69	103	138	173	207	238	271
Japanese	18	22	24	27	28	28	30	30
Korean	24	51	79	108	138	167	193	221
Filipino	44	73	104	134	163	192	218	246
Vietnamese	6	14	22	30	38	46	53	61
Other	12	43	66	93	117	142	166	190
Total	170	318	461	610	754	894	1,024	1,161

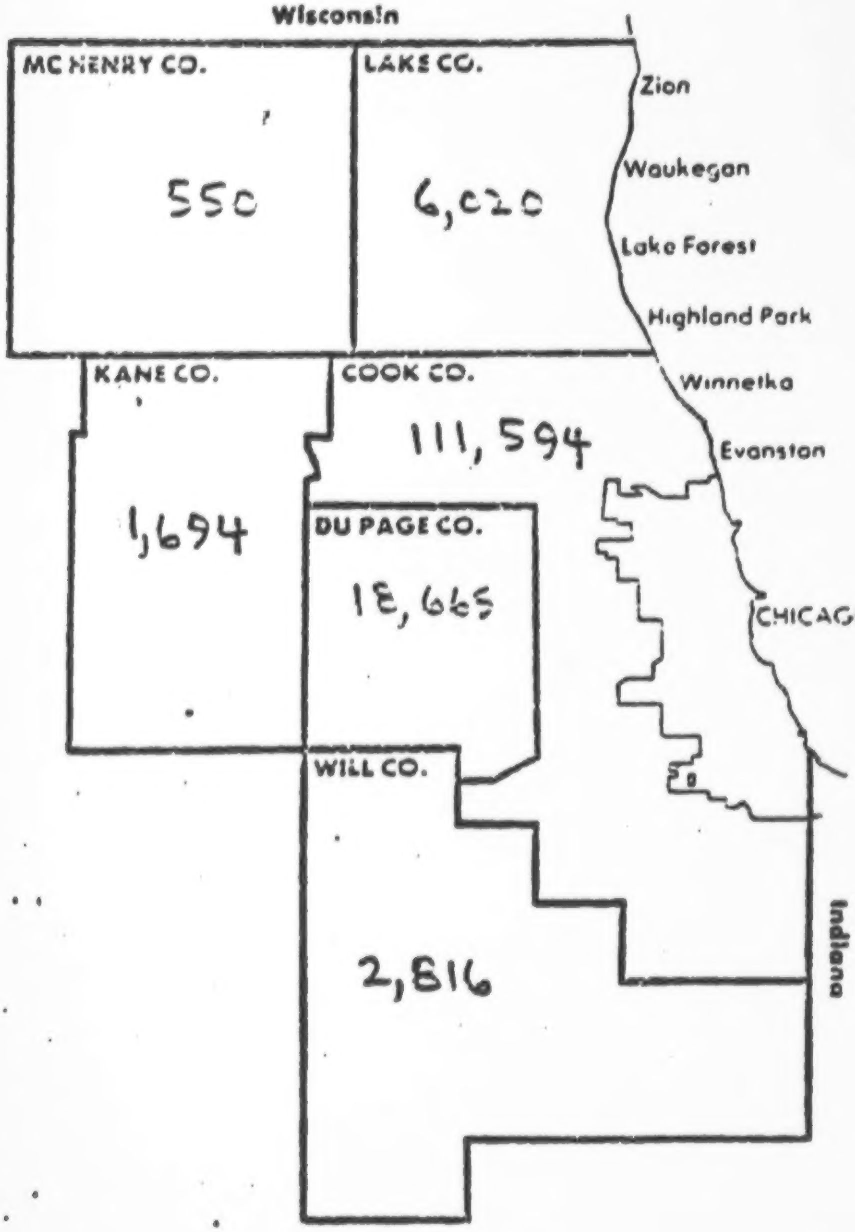
SOURCE OF INFORMATION:
AMERICAN DEMOGRAPHICS MAY 1985
POPULATION REFERENCE BUREAU, WASH., D.C.

STATE OF ILLINOIS ASIAN AND PACIFIC ISLAND
POPULATION 1980 (ACTUAL) - 1990 & 200 (PROJECTION)


ROCKFORD
CHICAGO
PEORIA
SPRINGFIELD

1980	170,000
1990	318,000
2000	461,000

ASIAN AND PACIFIC ISLANDER
POPULATION
1980 CENSUS


Wisconsin
MC HENRY CO.
550
LAKE CO.
6,020
Zion
Waukegan
Lake Forest
Highland Park
Winnetka
Evanston
KANE CO.
1,694
COOK CO.
111,594
DU PAGE CO.
18,665
CHICAGO
WILL CO.
2,816
Indiana

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METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITIES WITH LARGE CONCENTRATIONS OF ASIANS

Municipality	No. of "Other Non-White"*
Aurora	7,251
Waukegan	6,145
Skokie	4,939
Joliet	4,570
Elgin	3,844
Evanston	2,979
Cicero	2,601
Glendale Heights	2,398
Des Plaines	2,247
Oak Park	2,220
Schaumburg	2,016
Boling Brook	2,218
Chicago Heights	2,282
Mount Prospect	2,001
North Chicago	2,261
Morton Grove	1,882
Hoffman Estates	1,988
Hanover Park	1,929
Elk Grove Village	1,786
Blue Island	1,836
Arlington Heights	1,704
Addison	1,507

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* 1980 Census, includes American Indian, Alaskan

1980 CENSUS OF POPULATION
NORTHERN ILLINOIS QUICK REFERENCE SHEET

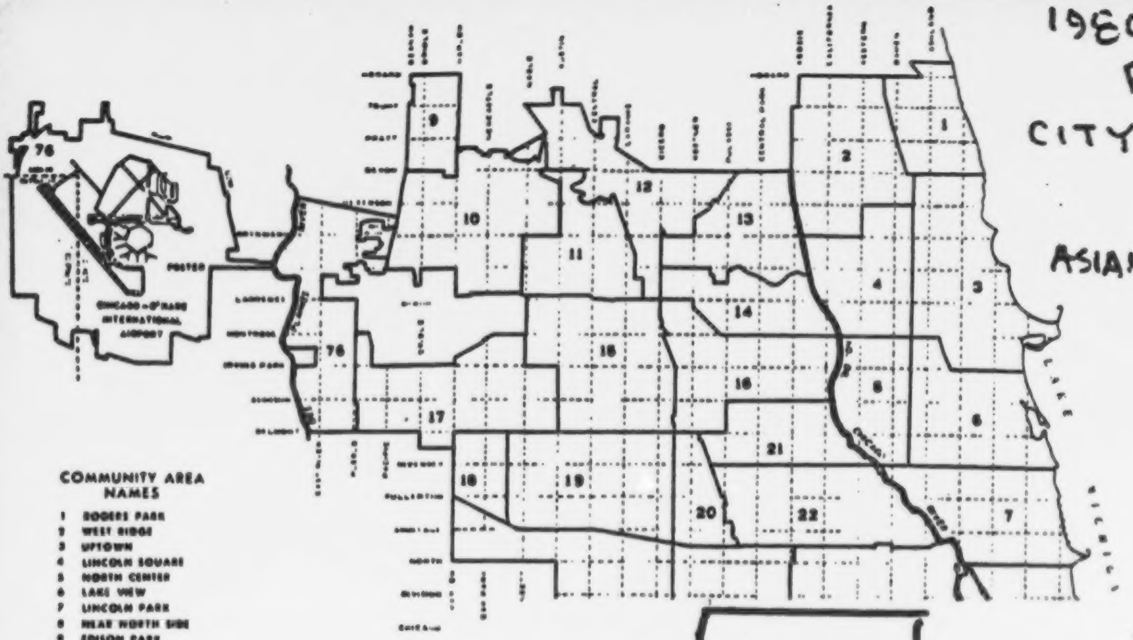
	TOTAL	WHITE	BLACK	INDIAN ESKIMO & ALEUT	ASIAN & PACIFIC ISLANDER	OTHER	SPANISH ORIGIN
COUNTIES							
COOK CO.	5,253,190	3,511,343	1,346,464	8,214	111,594	275,575	499,319
DUPAGE CO.	658,177	624,071	7,809	546	18,665	7,086	17,293
KANE CO.	278,405	250,872	13,724	460	1,694	11,655	26,118
LAKE CO.	440,372	394,978	28,241	860	6,020	10,273	21,064
MCHENRY CO.	147,724	145,601	108	145	550	1,320	3,020
WILL CO.	324,460	282,077	31,481	484	2,816	7,602	13,778
CITIES							
CHICAGO	3,005,072	1,490,217	1,197,000	6,072	69,191	242,592 8.1	422,061 14.1
ROCKFORD	139,712	117,730	18,428	294	765	2,495	4,034
PEORIA	124,160	101,174	20,717	195	1,054	1,020	1,726
CHICAGO SMSA	7,102,328	5,208,942	1,427,827	10,709	141,339	313,511	580,592
ILLINOIS	11,418,461	9,225,575	1,675,229	16,271	159,551	341,835	635,525

Information Services Program
Chicago Regional Office
U.S. Bureau of the Census

Source: PHC80-V-Illinois
1980 Census of Population
5/81

1980 CENSUS
POPULATION
CITY OF CHICAGO

ASIAN AND PACIFIC
ISLANDER



COMMUNITY AREA NAMES

1 ROGERS PARK
2 WEST RIDGE
3 UPTOWN
4 LINCOLN SQUARE
5 NORTH CENTER
6 LAKE VIEW
7 LINCOLN PARK
8 NEAR NORTH SIDE
9 EDISON PARK
10 NORWOOD PARK
11 JEFFERSON PARK
12 FOREST GLEN
13 NORTH PARK
14 ALBANY PARK
15 PORTAGE PARK
16 IRVING PARK
17 DUNNING
18 MONTCLARE
19 BELMONT CRAGIN
20 HERMOSA
21 AVONDALE
22 LOGAN SQUARE
23 HUMBOLDT PARK
24 WEST TOWN
25 AUSTIN
26 WEST GARFIELD PK
27 EAST GARFIELD PK
28 NEAR WEST SIDE
29 NORTH LAWNDALE
30 SOUTH LAWNDALE
31 LOWER WEST SIDE
32 LOOP
33 NEAR SOUTH SIDE
34 ARMOUR SQUARE
35 DOUGLAS
36 OAKLAND
37 FULLER PARK
38 GRAND BLVD
39 KENWOOD
40 WASHINGTON PK
41 HYDE PARK
42 WOODLAWN
43 SOUTH SHORE
44 CHATHAM
45 AVALON PARK
46 SOUTH CHICAGO
47 BURNSIDE
48 CALUMET HEIGHTS
49 ROSELAND
50 PULLMAN
51 SOUTH DEERING
52 EAST SIDE
53 WEST PULLMAN
54 RIVERDALE
55 HEGEWISCH
56 GARFIELD RIDGE
57 ARCHER HEIGHTS
58 BRIGHTON PARK
59 MCKINLEY PARK
60 BRIDGEPORT
61 NEW CITY
62 WEST ELSDON
63 GAGE PARK
64 CLEARING
65 WEST LAWN
66 CHICAGO LAWN
67 WEST ENGLEWOOD
68 ENGLEWOOD
69 GREATER GRAND CR.
70 ASHBURN
71 AUBURN GRESHAM
72 BEVERLY
73 WASHINGTON HGTS.
74 MOUNT GREENWOOD
75 MORGAN PARK
76 O'HARE

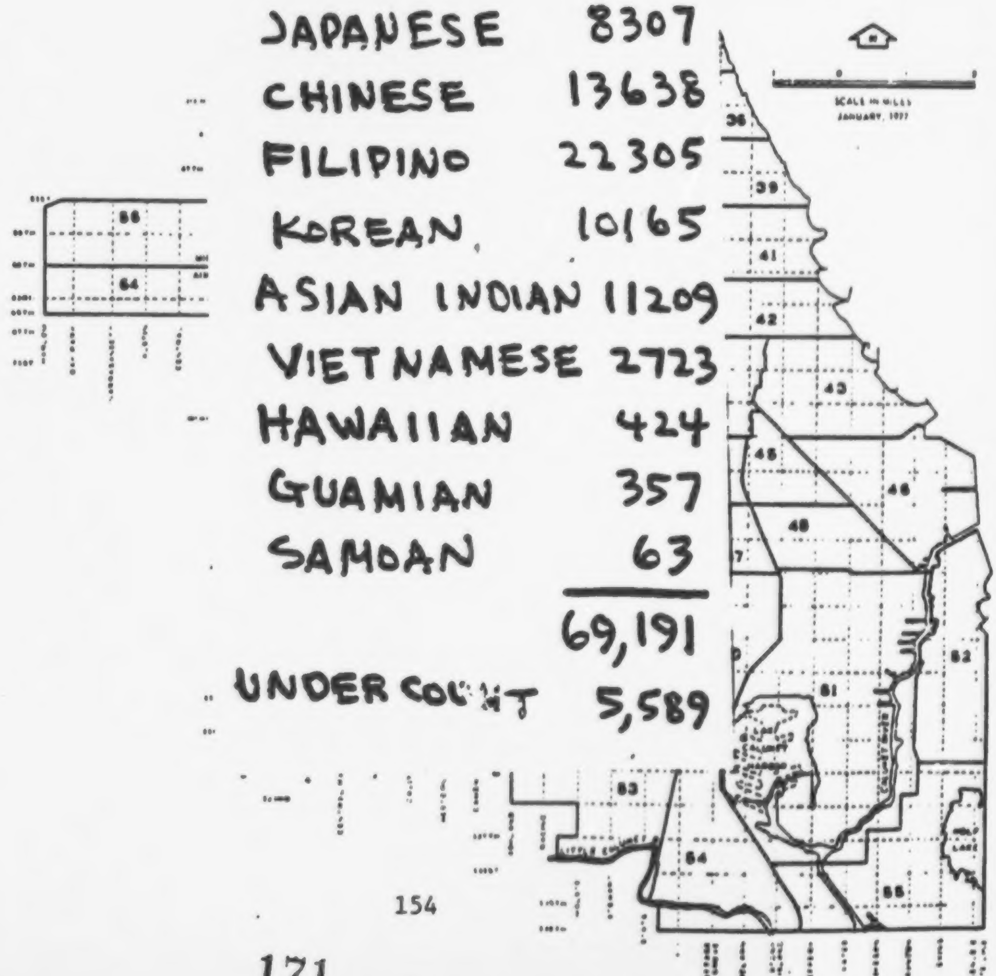
69,191

CITY OF CHICAGO

JANE M. BYRNE
MAYOR

DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING
CITY & COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
THOMAS KAPSALIS
COMMISSIONER

JAPANESE	8307
CHINESE	13638
FILIPINO	22305
KOREAN	10165
ASIAN INDIAN	11209
VIETNAMESE	2723
HAWAIIAN	424
GUAMIAN	357
SAMOAN	63
	69,191
UNDERCOUNT	5,589



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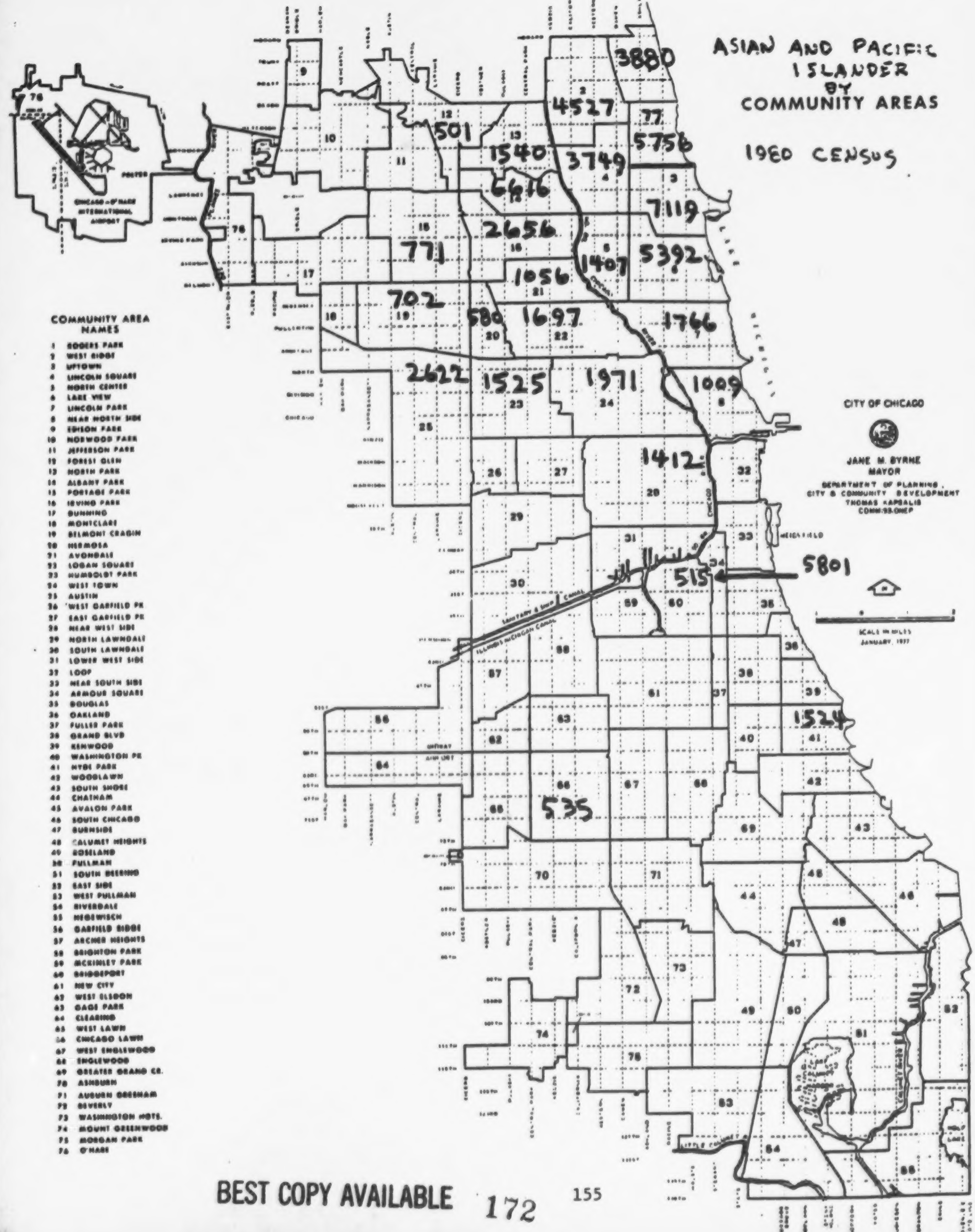
ASIAN AND PACIFIC ISLANDER BY COMMUNITY AREAS

1980 CENSUS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4527
77
5756
501
1540
3749
6616
7119
2656
771
1407
5392
1056
702
580
1697
1766
2622
1525
1971
1009
1412
5801
515
1524
535
CHICAGO-O'HARE INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT
LAKE MICHIGAN
SANITARY & SHIP CANAL
ILLINOIS & MICHIGAN CANAL
MIDWAY AIRPORT
CITY OF CHICAGO
JANE M. BYRNE MAYOR
DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING, CITY & COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
THOMAS KAPSALIS COMMISSIONER
SCALE IN MILES
JANUARY, 1977

COMMUNITY AREA NAMES

1 ROGERS PARK
2 WEST RIDGE
3 UPTOWN
4 LINCOLN SQUARE
5 NORTH CENTER
6 LAKE VIEW
7 LINCOLN PARK
8 NEAR NORTH SIDE
9 EDISON PARK
10 NORWOOD PARK
11 JEFFERSON PARK
12 FOREST GLEN
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45 AVALON PARK
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56 GARFIELD RIDGE
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70 ASHBURN
71 AUBURN GRESHAM
72 BEVERLY
73 WASHINGTON HGTS.
74 MOUNT GREENWOOD
75 MORGAN PARK
76 O'HARE

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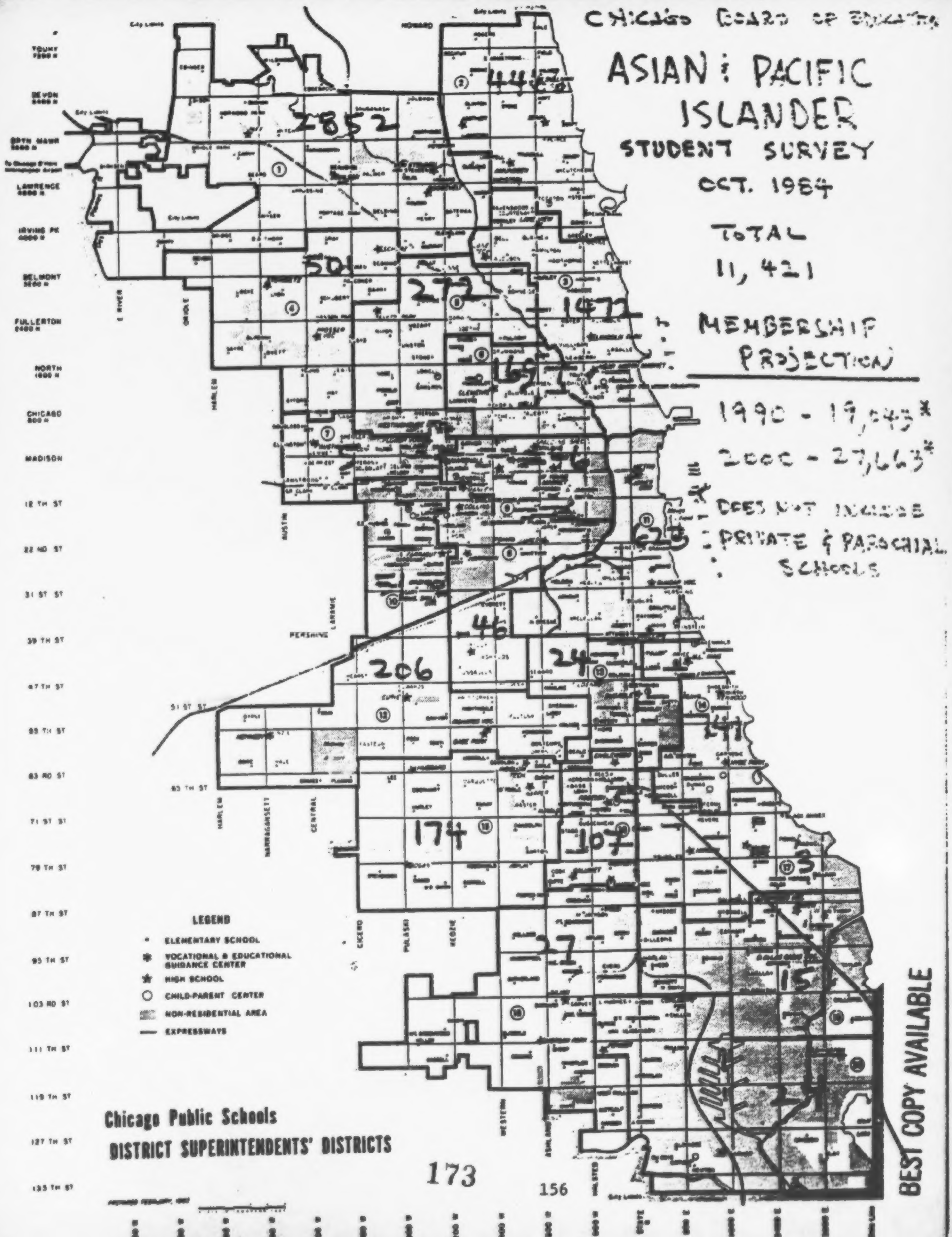
TOUHY 7200 N
DEVON 6400 N
BRYN MAWR 5600 N
LAWRENCE 4800 N
IRVING PK 4000 N
BELMONT 3200 N
FULLERTON 2400 N
NORTH 1600 N
CHICAGO 800 N
MADISON
12 TH ST
22 ND ST
31 ST ST
39 TH ST
47 TH ST
55 TH ST
63 RD ST
71 ST ST
79 TH ST
87 TH ST
95 TH ST
103 RD ST
111 TH ST
119 TH ST
127 TH ST
135 TH ST
HOWARD
HARLEM
AUSTIN
LARAMIE
CICERO
PULASKI
KEDZIE
WESTERN
ASHLAND
HALSTED
STATE
NARRAGANSETT
CENTRAL
PERSHING
51 ST ST
65 TH ST
2852
447
501
272
1472
169
96
623
46
206
24
147
174
107
3
27
15
LEGEND
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
VOCATIONAL & EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE CENTER
HIGH SCHOOL
CHILD-PARENT CENTER
NON-RESIDENTIAL AREA
EXPRESSWAYS

CHICAGO BOARD OF EDUCATION

ASIAN & PACIFIC ISLANDER
STUDENT SURVEY
OCT. 1984

TOTAL
11,421

MEMBERSHIP
PROJECTION

1990 - 19,043*
2000 - 27,663*

* DOES NOT INCLUDE
PRIVATE & PAROCHIAL
SCHOOLS

Chicago Public Schools
DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS' DISTRICTS

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ATTACHMENT B:

1980 U.S. CENSUS, UNPUBLISHED TABLES ON ASIAN AMERICAN EDUCATION, OCCUPATION, AND POVERTY LEVEL

Presented by

William T. Liu, Ph.D.

Table 1. Years of School Completed for Population 25 Years Old and Over, by Race, 1970 and 1980

Race	N*	Total %	None	YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED						
				GRADE SCHOOL			HIGH SCHOOL		COLLEGE	
				1-4	5-7	8	1-3	4	1-3	4+
1970										
White	98,245,635	100.0	1.4	3.1	9.1	13.0	18.8	32.2	11.1	11.3
Chinese	227,165	100.0	11.1	5.1	10.7	5.6	9.7	21.2	11.0	25.6
Japanese	353,707	100.0	1.8	2.4	6.3	8.5	12.2	39.3	13.6	15.9
Filipino	176,672	100.0	5.6	9.5	11.7	5.1	13.4	19.9	12.4	22.5
1980										
White	109,999	100.0	0.6	1.5	5.4	8.2	14.6	36.2	16.1	17.4
Black	13,013	100.0	1.8	5.8	12.2	7.5	21.7	29.1	13.5	8.3
Hispanics	6,549	100.0	4.6	10.5	16.8	7.9	17.2	24.0	11.4	7.6
Chinese	24,566	100.0	7.1	3.6	7.9	3.0	7.5	19.3	14.6	37.0
Japanese	23,735	100.0	1.1	1.2	3.4	4.5	7.9	35.7	20.0	26.3
Filipino	22,608	100.0	2.1	5.2	7.8	2.4	8.5	18.4	18.9	36.9
Korean	9,280	100.0	3.0	1.1	6.4	3.3	8.1	28.6	15.8	33.9
Asian Indian	12,024	100.0	1.7	1.6	4.2	4.2	8.7	14.5	13.6	51.5
Vietnamese	5,159	100.0	5.6	4.8	10.5	4.2	12.7	29.0	20.7	12.5

*Data for 1970 are based on entire population, whereas data for 1980 are based on samples (5% sample for Asian Americans; one-in-one-thousand B sample for other groups).

Table 2. Percentage of Population 25 Years Old and Over With 4+ Years of College Education by Race and Nativity/Year of Immigration

Nativity/ Year of Immigration	White	Black	Hispanics	Chinese	Japanese	Korean	Filipino	Asian Indian	Vietnamese
U.S. Born	17.5	8.6	7.2	41.5	27.2	26.8	14.8	13.4	-
Year of Immigration									
Before 1950	8.3	10.6	4.8	19.1	6.6	-	5.4	13.2	-
1950-1959	16.7	12.1	8.1	39.2	13.8	56.7	26.1	68.4	-
1960-1964	16.7	20.4	16.1	40.0	14.4	44.7	34.5	76.4	-
1965-1969	19.9	10.1	8.4	42.0	22.6	49.7	50.5	73.1	-
1970-1974	20.1	18.0	5.8	39.0	26.2	33.9	52.8	64.0	16.0
1975-1980	35.0	14.9	5.2	33.0	48.5	28.1	41.6	51.2	11.0

- Ns too small for reliable estimation.

Table 3. Education and Occupation Match and Mismatch by Race, 1980

Education-Occupation	White	Black	Hispanics	Chinese	Japanese	Korean	Filipino	Asian Indian	Vietnamese
With 4^{+} years of College Education									
Professional, Administrative and Managerial	67.9	67.8	59.8	61.6	63.7	48.4	49.5	67.5	50.6
Other occupations	32.1	32.2	40.2	38.4	36.3	51.6	50.5	32.5	49.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N)	(16,743)	(973)	(443)	(8,183)	(5,658)	(2,701)	(7,650)	(5,545)	(589)
With Less than 4 years of College Education									
Professional, Administrative and Managerial	14.6	7.9	7.6	14.8	15.1	11.7	19.5	19.0	8.8
Other occupations	85.4	92.1	92.4	85.2	84.9	88.3	80.5	81.0	91.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N)	(62,793)	(8,414)	(4,502)	(11,620)	(12,988)	(4,590)	(9,973)	(3,624)	(3,285)

Table 4. Poverty Level by Race for School Aged Children (6-17 years old), 1980

Poverty Level	White	Black	Hispanics	Chinese	Japanese	Korean	Filipino	Asian Indian	Vietnamese
Below poverty cut-off	10.0	35.6	31.4	15.7	4.2	12.0	6.2	10.2	43.4
Ratio of 1.00-1.99 of poverty cut-off	18.6	29.9	29.7	22.6	8.9	22.9	20.0	13.5	28.6
Ratio of 2.00+ of poverty cut-off	71.4	34.5	38.9	61.7	86.9	65.1	73.8	76.3	28.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N)	(32,731)	(6,375)	(3,774)	(6,704)	(4,425)	(3,303)	(7,513)	(3,220)	(3,283)